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THE PSYCHOLOGY OF SELLING AND
ADVERTISING

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BY

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TO MY WIFE
WHOSE DEVOTION AND HELP
HAVE MADE THIS WORK POSSIBLE

PREFACE

The fundamental objective of selling is to make a customer.

It is only recently that this truth has been appreciated. Many sellers are still striving only to make sales; some comprehend the difference between making sales and making customers, but do little else than talk about it. The leaders in merchandizing have incorporated the new objective into their sales procedure.

Selling in terms of permanent satisfaction, developing goodwill, converting potential prospects into regular customers, are all real psychological problems. They result when certain definite changes have taken place in the minds of prospects so that they come to think and feel in a new way.

To the extent that a seller knows what changes must take place and how they may be brought about, to that extent is he likely to be successful in his primary aim.

The purpose of this book is to supply a working formula in terms of which a seller may not only make each individual sale in an efficient manner but may also tend steadily to convert buyers into customers.

A few years ago there would have been little interest in this subject. Today the chief problem of business is to cut the cost of distribution. Consequently any possibility of increasing the efficiency of selling is welcome since it naturally tends toward success in business.

Based as it is upon this new objective of selling, it is inevitable that this book will present a somewhat different view from that found in older texts. New concepts have been added and old ones modified or eliminated.

The book is designed to meet the needs of three groups: first, professional leaders in the field; second, beginners; and third, those who desire a psychology, written in non-technical language, dealing with the problem of influencing others.

Leaders in the selling and advertising world will see that the *chief theses of this work are set forth in Chaps. I to VI.* Many

readers need go no further. If any point seems not entirely clear it will be found more fully discussed in a subsequent chapter. For example, the derivation of the "buying formula" is given in Chaps. IX to XV; consideration of the use of the "obstacle" occurs in Chap. XVIII. A reader interested in the writer's substitute for "human interest" and "reason why" will find it explained in Chaps. XVI to XIX; one inclined to question the writer's insistence on eliminating the phrases "getting attention" and "securing interest" will find the argument supporting such insistence in Chap. XII.

Apprentices in selling and advertising will probably not grasp all that is involved in Part I. But they should obtain a good orientation in the subject, thus enabling them to fit all the details that follow into a well-rounded whole. Possibly inexperienced salesmen will prefer to read Part IV before Parts II and III.

Many business men desire a psychology text which outlines the basic factors involved in handling and influencing others—possibly the most important problem of the age. Parts II and III are largely concerned with this matter.

The book is in no sense a substitute for a company sales manual which contains details respecting the company's policies, products, and peculiar selling problems. It may, however, be viewed as supplementary to such manuals, presenting among other things the whys and wherefores of many of the items in the sales manual.

The references at the close of each chapter have been carefully selected so as to present a variety of opinions, as well as to supply sources for additional information. No attempt has been made to give a complete bibliography.

I am indebted to many individuals in the compiling of this book. Many of them are unknown to me, for their contributions have come indirectly. To a few it is possible to say a personal "Thank you." W. H. Ingersoll, Harry Tipper, H. L. Hollingworth and J. McK. Cattell were originally responsible for my research fellowship in advertising, supported by the New York Advertising Men's League and later by the Association of National Advertisers. It was while holding this position that I laid the foundation for the book. Later I had the good fortune

to be associated with W. V. Bingham, A. A. Hamerschlag, Winslow Russell, Walter Dill Scott, and E. A. Woods, who were instrumental in establishing the Bureau of Personnel Research. From it grew the Research Bureau for Retail Training, the School of Life Insurance Salesmanship, and the Life Insurance Sales Research Bureau. Associated there were W. W. Charters, C. F. Hansen, J. M. Holcombe, Jr., H. G. Kenagy, H. W. McIntire, G. M. Lovelace, C. J. Rockwell, J. A. Stevenson, and C. S. Yoakum, to name only the leaders. To the researches and discussions carried on with these groups I owe much.

I am further greatly indebted to several hundred experienced salesmen who have been in my classes. From their practical viewpoint I have gained a better and broader understanding of the problems of selling, and also a realization of the need that such men have for a simple workable theory in terms of which they may plan their work.

Portions of the manuscript have been read by J. J. Cuddy, Advertising Manager of the Standard Oil Company of California and President of the San Francisco Advertising Club; J. B. Duryea, General Agent of the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company at San Francisco; R. M. Neustadt, Managing Director of the Retail Merchant's Association of San Francisco; C. R. Niklason of the Bureau of Management Research, San Francisco; F. P. Trask, The Caltex Company; Professors C. P. Stone and L. M. Terman of Stanford University; my father, Edward K. Strong; and my wife. From them I have received many helpful suggestions. I am also indebted to P. K. Judson and W. E. Lange for the sales interviews contributed by them and reproduced in Chap. IV.

I wish to call grateful attention to the Research Department of *Printers' Ink* as a source of real and prompt assistance in matters of selling and advertising.

Portions of Chaps. XIV and XXII have already appeared in the *Insurance Salesman* and the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, respectively. Permission to quote has kindly been granted by authors and publishers referred to in footnotes throughout the text.

E. K. S., JR.

July, 1925.

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PSYCHOLOGY OF SELLING AND ADVERTISING

PART I GENERAL SURVEY

Summary and introduction are combined in this book and appear together in the first six chapters. This somewhat unnatural union has been made in order quickly to present the main points of the work to the hasty reader, and to clarify the general notions of the beginner before introducing him to details.

Chapter I calls attention to the inevitable conflict between the points of view of buyer and seller, and stresses the fact that selling may be accomplished along the lines of least resistance when the seller adopts the buyer's point of view.

The process of buying is analyzed in Chap. II and the elements of buying set forth in a formula around which most of the book is centered. In Chaps. III and IV it is shown that this buying formula explains the process of selling as well as the process of buying.

In Chaps. V and VI the principal problems of advertising and selling are considered and their solutions pointed out in terms of the various elements in the buying formula.

Two additional chapters (VII and VIII) are included in Part I. They do not advance the chief thesis of the book, but relate to the problem of what the salesman should be who is to do the selling under consideration, and to the problem of what knowledge he should have of the commodity he sells.

PSYCHOLOGY OF SELLING AND ADVERTISING

CHAPTER I

THE TWO POINTS OF VIEW

There is a real need for salesmanship in the world today. Even though everyone should know exactly what he wanted, he would not know just where or how to obtain it. The salesman's function is to make him realize his wants and to show him how to find satisfaction.

It sounds easy. But it is not so simple as it sounds.

There are, of course, many reasons, connected with the product itself, why a given product does not sell. It may be as out of date as a mustache cup, as limited in appeal as a pet rattlesnake, as disappointing as a cheap cigar, once tried and ever after not wanted. The chief concern here is not with such cases. It is taken as a premise that our salesman is dealing in a reputable, authentic commodity which is designed to serve some useful end or increase the sum total of human happiness.

But many a worth-while article does not sell as it should. Obviously, then, the trouble is with the salesman. He is not reaching all his real prospects. Or if he reaches them, he is not interesting them. Or, if he interests, he is not holding them. Why?

One of the chief causes of such inefficiency is illustrated in the following story told by Lambert:¹

A salesman had covered three states in the South for a year and a half and was not making the progress that the sales manager expected. The product was something new in ice boxes and rather costly. It embraced several patented features, among which was a home process for manufacturing the ice.

¹ LAMBERT, S. C., "When the Salesman Samples His Own Line," *Printers' Ink*, Jan. 19, 1922.

The salesman's home was in Atlanta, where he owned a modest little bungalow. Instructions were given by the sales manager to have one of the boxes sent there as a gift from the company.

"You have been selling this product of ours for almost a year and a half now," remarked the sales manager casually during an office talk with the salesman, "but you are not so well acquainted with what it will do as you might be. We have sent one to your house. Accept it with our compliments. Tell me what your wife thinks of it."

The idea worked like a charm. The salesman played with that new-fangled ice box as a child might fuss with a toy. And, while he had thought he knew its virtues before, he now recognized that it was superficial knowledge. There was no special enthusiasm back of the road relationship.

In talking it over some months after with his sales manager, he said: "Business seems to be getting better for me. I'm selling along new lines, and I suspect it's because I know the product intimately. I see it work under my own roof; I can visualize the pleasure of the womenfolk when it is installed, and I impart this enthusiasm to my prospects. I can sell more intelligently to the dealer. You knew what you were about when you sent one over to my house."

The sales manager nodded.

"Yes," he admitted, "I did. For I knew you could do better than you were doing. Our product was right. You were simply selling under a quarter head of steam. You had only factory knowledge of it, and that is entirely different from home knowledge and intimate contact."

The salesman did not make progress as long as he was only a salesman. When he became a consumer also he learned a new point of view. Before that he and his prospects had looked at things from different angles; afterwards he had learned to put himself in the prospect's place and to see with his eyes. And his sales increased because his arguments were strengthened by being the prospect's own arguments, because he had stolen the prospect's own thunder.

This is what all salesmen must learn to do. Inefficiency in selling is traceable, again and again, to the fact that seller and buyer have different points of view.

The Point of View of the Salesman Is Different from That of the Buyer.—All men and women must admit, although they may not want to, that the chief interest of each is in him or herself. Each one of us evaluates everyone else and every object in the light of his or its effect upon us. To this extent a salesman and a buyer are alike. But they differ in other respects.

The salesman is selling in order to earn a living. Naturally he is most interested in the commodity he sells, the company he

works for, his territory, and everything related to his work. Because of his interest in all these things he most naturally talks about his commodity and his company; he emphasizes the value of his goods; and he is quick to refute the claims of his competitors. Salesmanship means to him, "the power to persuade people to purchase that which he has to sell, at a profit." Because he knows little or nothing about his prospects and their concerns, he is little interested in them and has little to say about them.

The buyer, on the other hand, just because he is primarily interested in himself, is very much interested in his own business and all that pertains to it. But he is not interested in the salesman, in his company, or in his goods. The only way he can become genuinely interested in them is to see in them something that will help him in his own affairs. He can be interested in what he can get out of the salesman's commodity—what he can gain from its resale or from its service.

One or the Other of These Two Points of View Must Be Uppermost during Any Sales Interview.—If the average salesman's point of view is dominant in a sales interview then the prospect must listen to much that bores him, or else he must dismiss the salesman. If he does listen he is forced to sort out from what the salesman presents those items that apply to his own problems, make his own applications, and decide whether the result will be worth while. And because the salesman does not comprehend the prospect's problems he cannot know very well what part of his sales talk has interested the prospect, nor comprehend why any particular part has interested him, and hence cannot adjust his presentation so as to fit the particular prospect's situation.

A life insurance salesman visiting in San Francisco answered a number of advertisements of competing companies in order to observe how other insurance salesmen presented their propositions. He said a few days ago, "I am amazed at what they talk about. They told me all about their companies and a little about their policies, and that's about all." Then he flushed a little and added, "But one of them pretty near sold me. He made me realize that I do not carry enough."

If it were possible to obtain the stenographic record of this interview the writer is certain it would show that the prospect's

point of view was dominant in the presentation. The salesman in this case "got close" to the prospect, discovered some of his plans, and made him see that life insurance would really serve him. Naturally, the prospect was interested because his own interests were being discussed.

In all such cases the salesman's commodity is presented as a solution to some problem of the prospect. Because the salesman has discovered what that problem is, he can lead the prospect step by step to see how it may be solved.

Selling may be accomplished when either the buyer's or seller's point of view is dominant. But when the salesman presents his commodity in his own way he is contending against the prospect's maximum resistance; whereas when he discusses some problem of the prospect and how it may be solved, he is selling along the line of least resistance.

Selling in Terms of the Salesman's Point of View Naturally Causes Inefficiency.—When a salesman presents his proposition from his own point of view he emphasizes the commodity he has for sale. His aim is to tell everything he can about it. But because he has learned that "too much" is often as bad as "too little," he talks about the commodity for a while and then attempts to close. If unsuccessful he talks some more and then attempts to close, and so on. The idea back of this procedure seems to be simply, "The more you tell, the more you sell." This sounds well but is not necessarily sound.

Most advertisements of automobiles illustrate this tendency to present as much as possible. For example:

The ——— policy persists inflexibly to produce the finest motor car in the world. By finest motor car in the world we mean, without reservation, the most attractive in appearance, the most comfortable and least fatiguing in which to travel; the most fascinating to drive; the most dependable; the most enduring; the most roadworthy; and by every standard the most desirable and most satisfying motor car of which it is possible to conceive. The effecting of that policy is made possible only because of abundant resources—in scientific equipment, in adept craftsmen, and in finances which are practically without limit.

This style of selling has been dubbed the *shotgun method*. All the talking-points that can be discovered are loaded into one presentation and fired at the prospective buyer with the fervent hope that at least one will hit him. The opposite style of selling,

the *rifle method*, involves the selection of just the talking-point which is pertinent to the particular prospect to be interviewed, or to the particular class of prospects to be reached through advertising, and then the shooting home of that one point in the most effective manner possible.

The "rifle" method necessitates knowing the prospect and presenting the proposition from his point of view. When the "shotgun" method is employed there is little interest in studying the prospect; the whole aim is to play up the proposition—the commodity and the house. The salesman, moreover, views selling as something he does; he does not recognize that the prospect must think and feel in certain ways before he will finally agree to buy. There results accordingly enormous overemphasis upon stunts used in securing the interview, in getting attention, and in closing. Salesmen who sell in this way want only one thing from psychology. That is, a stunt, a device, or a trick which when obtained will enable them to sell everyone they meet. The writer has been interviewed by many such salesmen and received letters from many more. When he has stated that no such device exists they have lost all interest in him.

The Trend in Selling Is Clearly toward Presenting the Prospect's Point of View.—From 1750 to 1880 was the period known as the Industrial Revolution. Starting with the discovery of steam as a source of power there came a constantly increasing number of inventions each year and a corresponding development of machinery in production. During this period production increased by leaps and bounds. But the markets of the world increased even more rapidly as a result of such factors as the development of the railroad, the telegraph, the steam-driven ship; the opening up of great areas of country in North and South America, Africa, and Australia; and rapid increase in population in the civilized world. Throughout this period the supply of products never caught up with the demand. It was a seller's market and so there was no incentive to improve selling methods but only to produce more goods.

The period from about 1880 to the present time is called the period of the Commercial Revolution. During this time production has caught up to demand and at times even passed it. The emphasis has shifted from producing more to selling more.

With this shift to a buyer's market there have come tremendous changes in selling. Witness the growing interest in salesmanship as expressed in the number of books issued on the subject.

The Library of Congress records show that but one book on Salesmanship existed in 1869. By decades the statistics are:

	PUBLISHED	TOTAL
1869.....	1	1
1870-1880.....	1	2
1880-1890.....	3	5
1890-1900.....	6	11
1900-1910.....	36	47
1910-1920.....	220	267
1920-1922.....	151 (3 years only)	418

A few years ago not a course on salesmanship or advertising was given anywhere. Today many of our colleges and universities offer such courses and more and more emphasis is being put upon the training of salesmen by industrial concerns. Similarly, there was until recently no research work in the whole field of distribution. Now such work is met with on every hand. And Congress has just concluded a report on distribution, the total cost of which would have amounted to \$5,720,000 if the men who cooperated in the investigation had received their regular salary for the time they voluntarily contributed.

This change of emphasis is beyond the control of business men today. Whether they like it or not they must concentrate on selling their goods. And as competition increases they must provide better goods to sell and they must sell them as cheaply as do others. To a production man the most obvious way to decrease cost seems to be to increase production. But this solution only intensifies the problem because it provides a still greater surplus to be disposed of. The recent Congressional report on Distribution indicts the business world for wasteful distribution of effort, unwise attempts to force distribution in territories already oversupplied, and general lack of knowledge of consumer requirements. But it makes clear that there are in many cases no excessive profits and that consequently a decreased cost of selling cannot be obtained from cutting profits. There remains the possibility of decreasing the price of goods by decreasing the cost of selling those goods. This is the problem of more efficient sales management and of better salesmanship.

Many changes in selling procedure have of necessity been made in the past fifteen years. Among them is the growing recognition of the buyer's point of view.

The development of the famous slogan—"attention, interest, desire, action, satisfaction"—illustrates this. In 1898 E. St. Elmo Lewis used the slogan, "Attract attention, maintain interest, create desire," in a course he was giving in advertising in Philadelphia. He writes that he obtained the idea from reading the psychology of William James. Later on he added to the formula, "get action." About 1907, A. F. Sheldon made the further addition of "permanent satisfaction" as essential to the slogan. Very few in 1907 felt the need for the last phrase, but on every hand today is heard the necessity for rendering *service*, of securing the *goodwill* of the buyer, of selling him what he *needs*, of establishing *permanent satisfaction*.

It is only a little more than a decade ago that advertising men first became seriously interested in *honesty* in advertising. Now that word forms the motto of the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World, and Vigilance Committees or Better Business Bureaus spend time and money in enforcing that high standard.

These changes have taken place so gradually that many salesmen and advertisers have failed to appreciate their inherent relationship to each other or their significance. Many have not seen, that *honest service* to a buyer in terms of his *needs* so that he will feel *goodwill*, and be *permanently satisfied*, means that the buyer's interests must be dominant, not the seller's. And fewer still have seen that the easiest way, and in fact the only way, to guarantee that this will be achieved is for the seller to present his proposition from the buyer's point of view.

This trend toward selling from the prospect's point of view is further illustrated by the growing interest in *merchandising*. Many sellers do not sell to ultimate consumers but to jobbers, wholesalers, and retailers. These business men must be satisfied with their purchases or they will not buy again. To meet this situation an increasing number of selling organizations are studying the merchandising needs of the wholesaler and retailer who handle their goods. Careful study has been made of the retail merchandising features of many a product, of its place on the shelves in the retail store, of its correct period of turnover,

of the retail selling expense properly chargeable against it on the average, of the loading it should carry. And many selling organizations have spent time and money teaching the retailer better methods of conducting his business, realizing that a successful retailer is better able to dispose of their goods than one who is not.

How the Salesman Can Learn to Sell in Terms of the Prospect's Point of View.—The most natural thing for the salesman is to present his proposition in almost the reverse order from that desired by the prospect—to talk about a commodity and its uses instead of the prospect's problem and its solution. Many a successful salesman, however, uses the latter methods, often without realizing it. Involving, as it does, the forgetting of his own interests and putting himself in another's place, it is not an easy way of handling a sale for the salesman, especially at first.

In the past the able salesman has learned almost entirely from experience, from many failures and successes. Frequently it has taken him years to acquire an efficient procedure. The process has been expensive, expensive to the salesman, to his firm, to his customers, and to society in general. In a campaign to secure salesmen for a company selling one of the so-called "intangibles," 888 newspaper advertisements were run. From the 11,983 replies, 5,537 men were asked to call. Only 3,951 did so. From this number 521 men were hired and given a month's intensive training course at their own expense. Of these, 255 finished and started work. And 87 finally succeeded and remained with the company. Consider the waste! Seventenths of 1 per cent of those originally considered made good. Yet in terms of that company's experience the campaign was viewed as a success!

In a study of 10,000 life insurance salesmen it was found that 20 per cent sold 80 per cent of all the business secured. The question is: How many of the remaining 80 per cent will learn to sell efficiently under the present method of "try, try again;" also how many can never be taught?

One of the most discouraging aspects of all this, aside from the cost, is that those salesmen who do succeed are seldom able to tell how they sell and so their successes aid very little in advancing the progress of salesmanship. In many cases indeed they stress aspects of selling which clearly can have little or no bearing upon

the real issue; and in this way they actually interfere with the progress of others.

The only short cut away from this trial-and-error type of learning to sell is selection of those men most likely to succeed and adequate instruction. Whether or not a man can ever be taught to sell efficiently right from the start remains to be seen. In the year 1925 it is certain that training methods are not yet advanced to such a stage. All that now can be expected from the best training courses is elimination of some mistakes and guidance toward methods which will result in fewer candidates failing and more of them selling efficiently in a short time.

The instruction needed by a prospective salesman centers around four main topics. First, he needs to know his commodity and the policies and history of his company. Second, he needs to understand selling methods, or at least one of them. Third, he needs to be able actually to carry out this method. And fourth, he needs to understand people, particularly the group to whom he expects to sell. Today, if any instruction is given at all it is concerned with the first two topics. But seldom is a salesman drilled until he knows how to act as well as speak. And equally seldom is he taught to study his prospects so as to understand their desires, their interests, and their problems.

It is this last topic that needs to be stressed if the salesman is to start selling in terms of the prospect's point of view. Unless he knows what his prospects want he cannot talk to them about their interests. And unless he knows their wants he will not be able to appeal to the motives that cause them to buy, except in a general "shotgun" manner. But when a salesman understands what his prospects want then he can very clearly and simply show them how they can get what they desire through the purchase of his commodity. And this is undoubtedly just what the refrigerator salesman, referred to at the beginning of this chapter, did after he had used the refrigerator in his home. Having become a *bona fide* user himself he talked as one buyer to another instead of as a seller to a buyer.

The purpose of the remaining chapters is to show how a person's mind works when he buys or accepts a salesman's propositions, and to make clear what a salesman or advertiser should do in order to proceed along the line of least resistance.

Questions

1. In what is the salesman naturally interested?
2. In what is the prospective buyer naturally interested?
3. To what extent do these interests coincide?
4. The salesman can attempt to interest the prospect in what the salesman is interested in or he can force himself to become interested in what the prospect is interested in. Which should he do?
5. What difficulties result from either of the above lines of procedure? Consider concrete cases.
6. How can these difficulties be overcome? Consider concrete cases.
7. What changes have taken place in selling during the last fifteen years? What has caused these changes?

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CHAPTER II

ANALYSIS OF A PURCHASE

This chapter starts with a description of what one purchaser thought and did in the course of an everyday purchase. The picture is typical.

MRS. CARTER'S MORNING ORDER

As soon as breakfast was over Mrs. Carter sat down with paper and pencil and began to plan her day's menus. This was her usual custom, for she found it made ordering from the stores so much easier. First she considered the matter of leftovers which could be utilized, and then proceeded to list the things which must be bought. "Large loaf bread," she wrote automatically. Her family used one daily. She considered a minute, then inserted the word "Tiptop" before bread.

"I must remember to impress that on the grocer," she thought, "he has been sending me "Aunt Hannah's" and it is too crumbly for toast."

"One pound butter, one dozen eggs, five pounds sugar," were added to the list with little consideration. They were articles that must be renewed as they were consumed. Then Mrs. Carter consulted her menu. "Lamb from the butchers," she reflected, "then a can of Grandmother's peas and Eddy's currant jelly from the grocer. And two cans of tomato soup. No, he charges $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents a can and I can get it for 10 cents at the A. & P." She bit her pencil a minute then added the soup to the list after all. "I really haven't time to go over today, so I might as well pay the nickel extra. But I must remember to lay in a supply some time when I have the car out."

Mrs. Carter had been resting her paper on the back of a magazine as she wrote. Now her eye fell by chance on the advertisement on the back which portrayed a bowl of delicious canned peaches. "I might as well order some peaches," she thought, "I haven't any on hand and they are so nice if any one comes to lunch unexpectedly."

She looked her menu over again. "That's really all I need today, with what I have in the house. Oh! but it's wash day tomorrow. I must see how I am in supplies." She went out to the laundry and looked over the shelves.

"Starch is nearly gone. Well, I want to try this new Linit anyway. I don't suppose it will come up to the advertisement, nothing does, quite.

But I'll try it. And soap flakes—two boxes of Ivory. I've had such good luck with my washing machine since I've used nothing else. Not a single streaky color. Mrs Mills says Ivory isn't strong enough to get out the dirt. But she is always fussing about her colors running. And if I run the cylinder for 20 minutes I get the dirt out all right. I wonder if it would be worth while to get some of this Soakem to soak the clothes with overnight. The advertisements are certainly glowing. However, mother tried it and said she couldn't see it made a bit of difference. I won't bother now."

Just here the front doorbell rang. Mrs. Carter went to the door to see a rather nervous young woman who began immediately, "Good morning, Madam, may I come in and demonstrate to you the Cochran baking powder, one of super excellence and—"

"It wouldn't be worth your while," said Mrs. Carter, "I use Royal and I'm perfectly satisfied."

"But, Madam, you would be surprised to see how your cakes would improve with Cochran. You know how often they fall with Royal. But with—"

"No, mine don't fall so very often. Anyway I am not going to change. Good—"

Mrs. Carter tried to close the door but the woman had her hand on it.

"Surely you won't be so prejudiced as not to see our demonstration at least. Then you can make an intelligent choice and—"

"Good morning," snapped Mrs. Carter and shoved the door vigorously. "I hate to be so rude," she thought, "but what can one do? And she wasn't very complimentary herself. Still I suppose I am unduly prejudiced for Royal. I never have tried any other but that once up in the country when I could only get Sanford's. It was awful. Or maybe it was the stove. But my goodness, I remember cutting out cookies with an old Royal tin when I was a tiny thing in grandma's kitchen. Mother never used anything else. And I wouldn't know my kitchen cabinet without a red Royal can, and a blue package of Baker's chocolate."

ANALYSIS OF A PURCHASE

The mental processes involved in a purchase when reduced to their simplest elements are:

1. Want.
2. Solution.
3. Purchase.

Mrs. Carter wants to wash the clothes tomorrow. To do so she must have soap, and as she has very little, she orders more.

She orders Ivory Soap because she has found it *satisfactory*. If it had not been so, she would have tried something else. Because the outcome of the purchase determines whether there will be

a repeat order or not, and because today nearly all selling organizations are interested in repeat orders, it is necessary to add a fourth element to our analysis of a purchase. The four elements are, then:

1. Want.
2. Solution.
3. Purchase.
4. Satisfaction.

The Solution.—Whenever a want is felt it means that the individual is confronted with some difficulty or is conscious of a deficiency of satisfaction. In the world of selling and buying the solution to such a difficulty will always be some commodity or service. And the commodity or service will be somebody's commodity or service. Mrs. Carter, for example, starts to satisfy her want to have clean clothes by purchasing soap flakes, and definitely buys Ivory soap flakes, not Lux.

In purchasing, then, the element "Solution" involves, always two parts:

- a. Commodity (service).
- b. Trade name.

In order to have a terminology here that will fit every case of purchasing, the term "trade name" must be stretched considerably. It will be used to cover such cases as the buying of Ivory, not Lux; of buying sugar from Hawkins', not Sanders', store; and of buying tea from Smith who calls at the door, not from Jones. In other words, the solution to any want that is satisfied through a purchase always involves buying a commodity and, moreover, buying some particular company's or store's or salesman's commodity.

FORMULA OF BUYING

It is useful to be able to express the elements entering into the process of buying in the form of a diagram or formula. It helps greatly in remembering them. But any formula which represents mental processes is inadequate and tends to misrepresent the facts. This must be frankly recognized at this point in the

development of the subject. In the discussion that will follow a fuller and more accurate treatment of the subject will be made.

In buying anything, the purchaser proceeds mentally from want to commodity, to trade name, then purchase; and, upon using the commodity, he experiences satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This can be represented as follows:



This formula covers the elements involved in buying where a definite buying habit has been established. Thus Mrs. Carter no sooner felt the want of groceries for the day's menus than she wrote down "1 pound butter, 1 dozen eggs, 5 pounds sugar" all of which she telephoned the grocer in a few minutes. So also she wrote down, "can of Grandmother's peas and Eddy's currant jelly," as soon as she thought of lamb.

But the above formula does not yet contain certain elements that are involved whenever a habit of buying is not fully established or is interfered with by competing habits. For example, Mrs. Carter has been receiving Aunt Hannah's bread which is not satisfactory because it is "too crumbly for toast." And so Tiptop bread is ordered. Aunt Hannah's bread, to repeat, does not adequately satisfy Mrs. Carter's wants. She is changing to Tiptop because she believes it will more adequately satisfy her.

Consider another example: Mrs. Carter has been using Ivory flakes in her washing machine. A recent caller, Mrs. Mills, has recommended another soap in preference to Ivory flakes because the latter does not "get the dirt out." Her remarks have weakened the habit of buying Ivory flakes. And so when Mrs. Carter now starts to write down Ivory flakes she must decide whether she will or will not buy it. Reasons flash through her mind attacking Mrs. Mills' objection and also supporting her own use of Ivory. Had she absolutely no reasons to give herself in defense of her established habit of buying Ivory, the chances are that she would try Mrs. Mills' soap.

In buying it is frequently necessary that reasons be advanced in support both of the commodity and of the trade name. And it is also necessary, possibly even more essential, that a *pleasant*

feeling shall be experienced when the commodity and the trade name are thought of. Lava soap is bought for the garage because it removes grease better than any other that has been tried (reason), and Palmolive soap is bought for the bathroom because of a liking for it (pleasant feeling). The action in the latter case cannot be defended in terms of reasons because it is known from using other soaps in hotels and at the homes of friends that Palmolive is not the only soap that will clean easily. But the purchaser likes it so much that he unconsciously asked for Palmolive shaving cream one time when he needed this commodity. Again feelings came into play. The shaving cream was all right but the purchaser didn't like the color scheme of the tube, so he hasn't bought any more.

To insure purchase the commodity must be considered adequate and also pleasing. In a great many cases if the commodity is viewed as adequate it is also liked, and *vice versa*. But this is not always the case. There are some objects which have been found quite adequate but which are not liked, and there are some things that are liked and bought which are admittedly not so good as other competing commodities.

When adequacy and pleasant feelings are included in the buying formula a diagram like this is the result:

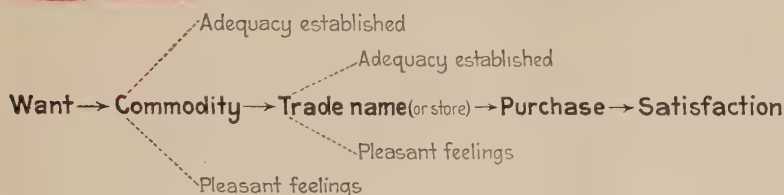


FIG. 1.—The buying formula.

When a buying habit is being established it is necessary that the buyer shall be able to give himself reasons as to why the commodity is an adequate solution to his want and as to why the particular trade name is the best one to buy. It is also necessary that he shall feel pleasantly toward the commodity and the trade name.

And whenever his buying habit is challenged by a friend's remark, a salesman's presentation of a competing article, or the statements in an advertisement, it is essential that the buyer

shall have reasons with which to defend his action, and that in addition he shall feel pleasantly toward both the commodity and the trade name.

All this is represented by the dotted lines in the formula. To repeat; whenever the commodity is questioned, as, for example, whether concrete or brick will be used in building a sidewalk, the reasons and feelings that come to mind determine the choice. And whenever the trade name is questioned—whether Ivory or Palmolive shall be used—the reasons and feelings that come to mind again determine the choice. Consequently, when a person is being influenced to buy, not only the first time but also later on, it is important, whenever he hesitates, that reasons for buying both the commodity and the trade name shall be ready to his need and that he shall be conscious of a pleasant feeling tone in both connections.

Recognizing all that has been said in the preceding paragraphs, nevertheless it is true that the primary elements in a well-established buying habit are those on the central line of the formula connected by solid lines. The majority of objects that are bought are purchased with scarcely a thought as to why, and with a minimum of feeling. And it should be the constant aim of the salesman and advertiser to form such direct associations. Reasons and pleasant feelings are related to elements on the central line by dotted lines to indicate that they constitute the elements of defense of the buying habit. As long as they are present buying will continue as in the past. This is well illustrated by Mrs. Carter's reaction to the Cochran baking powder saleswoman. Royal baking powder made good cake and it aroused pleasant memories of childhood in mother's kitchen. As long as it so brought to mind cogent reasons as to its use and pleasant recollections it would continue to be bought.

An investigator reports that out of 69 sales made in a drug store one morning, there were 32 sales in which the goods were asked for by brand, 23 were made without reference to brand, and 14 were selected by the purchaser from goods he could see displayed in the store.

When the brand was asked for there existed a well-established connection between want, commodity, and trade name. Reasons and pleasant feelings had influenced the development of that

association. But at the time the purchaser asked for the article these secondary elements were not prominently in his mind. When the brand was not named, the purchase was not made until after there had been some consideration of the pros and cons of one article *versus* another, and a certain amount of feeling experienced. It is not surprising that the investigator found that when the brand was asked for, the sale took considerably less time than when the suggestion came from the salesman.

The process of voluntary purchasing has been analyzed into the elements set forth in the buying formula. The next chapter will discuss whether these same elements can be employed to explain the process of buying when a prospect is influenced by a salesmen.

Questions

1. Jot down as well as you can the ideas that flashed through your mind recently when you decided to buy some article.
2. Why did you buy the particular article instead of some other object?
3. Why did you want any object at all?
4. In answering Question 3 you have presumably stated that you wanted the object for some purpose. Now *why* were you interested in that purpose?
5. Suppose you continued to ask "why" to each of your answers: Would it be possible to keep this up indefinitely or would you finally come to some answer beyond which you could not go? If you decide there is no final answer, explain why. If you decide there is a final answer, give an example.
6. What are the essential elements in a purchase?
7. Can you reproduce the buying formula from memory?

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CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF A SALE

The distinction between selling and buying is just that between the obverse and the reverse of a coin. They are merely two views of the same thing—the exchange of a commodity for a consideration satisfactory to both buyer and seller—although in one aspect the seller takes the initiative and in the other the buyer.

In matching pennies it is of importance which side of a coin falls uppermost. And in business it is of value to consider whether a product will be bought or must be sold. The matter will be taken up more fully later. At present it will be sufficient to recognize that the mental processes of the buyer are essentially alike whether he buys or is sold to.

Here is an example of selling taken from the life insurance field. Let us see if it shows our buying formula (Fig. 1) to be of equal value in expressing the mental process of one to whom something is sold.

WILLIAM BAGLEY INTERVIEWS DR. CARTER C. BARNES¹

Picture of Carter C. Barnes, dentist, Middletown, Conn.

Age, thirty-six in 1919—born, May 25, 1883.

Has \$3,000 twenty-premium life in this company, taken out at age of thirty. No other insurance known.

Married—has three young children, a boy and two girls.

Now practices alone, but until recently was associated with an elder dentist, Dr. Warden.

Income unknown; probably about \$3,500 to \$4,000.

¹ From STRONG, E. K., JR.: "The Psychology of Selling Life Insurance," lesson 1, 1922. Reprinted with permission of Harper & Brothers. The sale that is outlined here was an easy sale, although of the fifteen salesmen who had called on Dr. Barnes during the year, not one had been able to interest him. The author was acquainted with the successful salesman, several of the unsuccessful salesmen, and the prospect, and thus obtained the details of the sale. These were outlined to Griffin M. Lovelace, who finally wrote out the sales interview as it now stands.

Graduate of local college, Wesleyan University, takes an active interest in college affairs and in his fraternity, Psi Upsilon. Is a member of the Methodist Church, the Country Club, and the University Club.

Wife has inherited \$35,000 from an uncle, according to the papers.

Plan.—Educational policy to provide four year's expenses for son's college education.

Thirty-five-year endowment, continuous premiums, dividends accumulated for old-age fund.

Insurance payable as follows: Interest on principal payable to the boy until eighteen (or age estimated at which he will enter college) if insured dies before the boy is eighteen years old. Beginning at such age the principal to be paid in instalments for four years, payable semiannually in September and February.

If the father lives to see the boy through college and wishes to change the beneficiary so as to increase the protection for his daughters, he may do so.

Interview.—Bagley telephones Dr. Barnes, saying he wants to see him for a few minutes and asking what time "today" would be most convenient. The dentist says he has no engagements for three o'clock and that if this is not taken later, he will see Bagley at that hour.

Bagley calls at three and finds Dr. Barnes at liberty.

5

Bagley: Dr. Barnes?

Barnes: Yes.

Bagley: I'm Mr. Bagley. I telephoned you this morning.

Barnes: Oh, yes.

Bagley: Thank you for letting me see you promptly. I thought of something the other day which I believe is a matter of interest and importance to you and I just got the details worked out yesterday. I am glad I can present them at once.

10

Barnes: What did you want to see me about?

Bagley: Dr. Barnes, I believe you have a son.

15

Barnes: Yes.

Bagley: Of course, he's not old enough to go to college yet, is he?

Barnes (laughs): No, he's only ten years old. But he's already interested in college. Says he's going to Wesleyan, as I did; knows all the football players and is better posted on Wesleyan athletics than I; although I am something of a fan myself.

20

Bagley: That's fine. It must be a source of much pleasure to you to find your little son already interested in college and thinking definitely of going to college. I came to speak to you about your boy. May I sit down a moment?

25

Barnes: Certainly. (Both sit.)

Bagley: From what you have just said, Dr. Barnes, I don't need to ask you if you believe in a college training. As you look back on your own experience is there anything else you could give your boy which you believe would benefit him as much as a college education?

30

Barnes: No, there isn't. It's a big thing for any young man. It broadens his view of life, deepens his capacity for enjoying the better things of life, and equips him to do his part in every way.

Bagley: I heartily agree with you. And doesn't it also increase his ability to earn a living and to take a high rank in his community? Isn't it of real practical value also? 35

Barnes: I think it is decidedly. But what was it you wanted to see me about? Aren't you with the American Home Life Insurance Company?

Bagley: I am; and I am glad to see from our records that you are insured in our company. 40

Barnes: Yes, I have a small policy in your company.

Bagley: You haven't yet made any insurance provision for your son's college education, have you?

Barnes: I don't understand just what you mean. 45

Bagley: I mean you haven't taken out an educational policy for your boy.

Barnes: No. I never heard of an educational policy.

Bagley: This is the idea. If you live, you mean to see that your son gets a college education. If you should happen to die before he is old enough to go to college, or before he completes his college course, he may or may not get a college education, although that is the one thing you would rather he should have above all others to fit him for life. The educational policy insures your boy a college education. 50

When you think of the scale of living to which you have accustomed your family, you will realize that it would probably take all your present insurance and whatever investments you and Mrs. Barnes have to support the family properly, if you should die. 55

There might possibly be enough to pay all or a part of the boy's way through college, but you would no doubt feel a lot better satisfied if you made a special provision for a four-year income payable to your son during his college course. Not only would you feel happier to know that his college education was provided for, but you can understand that if anything happened to you, a high-spirited boy would probably hesitate to allow his mother to send him to college if the family income were not ample to provide his expenses without any sacrifice on his mother's part. 60 65

Of course, he might work his way through college wholly or in part. Many boys do so and there are persons who seem to think it is a good thing for a boy to have to do so. But I have talked with college teachers and administrators who are strongly of the opinion that the boy who has to pay his way entirely is under a distinct handicap; that so much of his time is required to earn a living that his studies suffer, no matter how conscientious and industrious he may be. 70

Barnes: I really hadn't thought very much about it. Indeed, I had never seriously considered the possibility of my not being able to see the boy through college myself. 75

Bagley: But we must face the fact, mustn't we, Doctor? There is such a possibility. About one father in five does not live long enough to see his boy through college. You are in good health and have every reason, so far as your own personal and family history are concerned, to hope to see your boy through college. But there is in your case, as in mine and as in the case of every man, the possibility that our expectations will not be realized. You have seen men in the best of health, men of good habits, and of a long-lived family, cut down suddenly by influenza or some other disease; and many of them were not prepared to go, so far as provision for their children's future was concerned. 80 85

No doubt you knew Dr. Kellar.

Barne: Yes, I knew Kellar. 90

Bagley: A fine man. One of the best physicians in the city; in the prime of life, in good health; just arrived at a position of distinction in his profession and earning a good income. But the influenza took him and we find that, financially, he was not ready to go. He had a son at the Taft School last year; but this year the boy has been in the local high school, and I understand the family is not left in very good circumstances. If this boy goes through college, he will have to work his way, unless some friend or relation helps him out, and that will be a source of embarrassment to him and to his mother. 95

What a fine thing it would have been, if Dr. Kellar had had such a proposition for his boy as the educational policy I am prepared to submit for your consideration. 100

Barnes: What is the proposition?

Bagley: How much do you think your boy would need each year to see him through Wesleyan? 105

Barnes: Well, he could live at home. I should think his other expenses would be at least \$300 or \$400.

Bagley: Wouldn't it be well to figure for him if he *would* have to pay his board so that he would be prepared for anything that might happen? Let me show you the plan I had worked out, as a minimum for tuition, board, clothes, books, college activities. 110

I estimated about \$750 a year. From what I can gather from various sources, I judge that \$600 might be considered a fair minimum today. Formerly, \$500 might have been a fair figure. But costs are much higher now as all of us know. Each thousand dollars of insurance will provide about \$260 a year for four years; \$3,000 will provide about \$780 a year for four years. This can be settled in semiannual payments, say the first of September and the first of February, just at the time of the year when there will be special college expenses. 115

The amount of insurance is small. It is really quite wonderful to think that for such a small amount of insurance, your boy could have the benefit of four years at college, if anything happened to you, just as surely and under just as favorable circumstances as if you were living, without requiring any sacrifice on the part of his mother, 120

independently of any assistance from anybody, and without the necessity of devoting any of the time needed to do his college work properly to working his way through. Is there anything else that would mean so much to your boy at such a time? Is there anything else which would make him more appreciative of his father; anything else that would more surely tend to keep alive in his heart all his life a deep affection and high regard for the memory of his father? The fact that his father had the foresight and the sense of responsibility and the love for him to provide for his college education would seem to him the most certain evidence of all, that his father was the kind of a father he had always believed him to be.

Barnes: That is a fine proposition, Mr. Bagley. I'm very much interested. As a matter of fact, I've been thinking lately of taking out some more insurance.

Bagley: How much have you now, Doctor?

Barnes: The \$3,000 in your company and \$4,000 in the Mutual Aid Company. I have been talking with one or two agents who have been in to see me and had thought I would take out a little more insurance, but they had not presented anything concrete as you have done. I want to do something for my children. Mrs. Barnes has some independent means and the \$7,000 I already have is payable to her. I wouldn't want to change that; but I felt I might take some insurance for the children. This plan of yours is definite. It accomplishes the very thing I would want to do for the boy above all others. What is the premium?

Bagley: If you agree, I'm going to put this on the thirty-five-year Old-age Plan, deposits every year, and get you to leave the dividends to accumulate at compound interest. If the present dividend scale continues this would make your policy fully paid up in about twenty-three or twenty-four years and fully matured for \$3,000 in cash in about age sixty-three or sixty-four; and yet the annual deposit is very little more than the ordinary life plan. At age thirty-six, the ordinary life deposit is \$27.17 a thousand. For the plan I offer, the thirty-five-year old-age policy it is only \$29.91. Yet you can convert it into a paid-up policy in twenty-three or twenty-four years by accumulating your dividends, assuming our present dividend scale will be continued, and the policy will mature as an old-age cash payment at sixty-three or sixty-four.

This is a plan we advise for professional men who may feel the need of retiring in the sixties, and who have not commercial business which may be continued by an employee. It is not only a fine proposition for the boy but it is a good thing for you, if you live out your natural lifetime. Don't you think it is a fine combination plan?

Barnes: Yes, it looks pretty good. I suppose this policy has all the usual features, cash values, paid-up and extended insurance, and all the usual privileges.

Bagley: Yes, all of them. It's a beautiful contract and when I get the policy we will go over the details together. (Gets out the application and his pen, asks the usual questions, and is particularly careful to get the questions regarding the beneficiary right. Barnes signs and Bagley gets a check for \$89.73 and arranges to have the examination made that evening.) 175

Bagley: There is just one important thing, Doctor, that I am going to leave until tomorrow, but I want to get it settled if possible before we send your papers to the Home Office. Please figure out when you expect your boy will enter college, whether in his eighteenth or nineteenth year, so that we may specify that, in the event of your death before he enters college, the payments shall begin at the age of entry, eighteen or nineteen as the case may be. There are certain details that will have to be arranged when we know the age at which he will probably enter college. 180 185

Barnes: All right, I'll think that over tonight.

Bagley: Dr. Barnes, you have one or two daughters, haven't you?

Barnes: Yes, two.

Bagley: As I understand your plans for the protection of your children, I believe you would be interested in something concrete to consider for each of your daughters, just as you have selected a concrete proposition for the boy. Will you give me the names and ages of your daughters? 190

Barnes: Madeline Embry and Eleanor Louise. They are twelve and seven years of age. 195

Bagley: Thank you, Doctor. I'll want a day or so to work out a plan carefully for each of them. I'll drop in when the plans are ready. Good-bye. Thank you very much, Doctor.

Barnes: Good-bye. I'm much obliged to you.

THREE ASPECTS OF A WANT

This sales interview between Bagley and Barnes has dealt both explicitly and implicitly with the wants of Barnes. Before beginning an analysis of the interview it is advisable to consider the three aspects of a want.

A person feeling a want may focus his attention upon how bad he feels, or upon how good he will feel when he gets what he wants, or upon the thing that blocks him from getting what he wants. These three possibilities may be spoken of as the *negative*, the *positive*, and the *obstacle* aspect of the want.

The negative aspect of a want has reference to the dissatisfaction felt right now. The positive aspect, on the other hand, has reference to the satisfaction to be obtained, the fun, the joy, the happiness that is desired. A day-dream is characteristically

a dwelling upon what is positively desired. When out for a long hike a man may feel how hungry and thirsty he is, how hot and sweaty, how tired and how dusty the road is, and so on. Or he may, on the other hand, enjoy the anticipation of ice cream to be obtained at the end of the day. How good it will taste, how cold it will be, how pleasant it will be to sit in the shade and rest—all such pleasures are enjoyed imaginatively. The pessimist naturally thinks of the negative aspect of his want; the optimist thinks of the positive aspect. The former finds fault and is unhappy almost regardless of how good the situation is; the latter obtains pleasure almost regardless of how bad the situation is.

Sometimes the negative aspect of a want and sometimes the positive aspect should be emphasized in selling. Ordinarily some emphasis on both is desirable, for each intensifies the other.

But now what is the obstacle aspect of a want? Psychologically recognition of the obstacle is the first step in the solution of a want. In the case of our tired hiker, the obstacle is the five miles that must be traveled before he reaches the end of the street-car line. If the five miles could be eliminated he could enter the welcoming "joint," enjoy his cold, refreshing ice cream, stretch his tired legs, and feel the pleasure of having finished a fine outing. But the five miles remain—they constitute an obstacle to his getting what he wants, they force him to keep on and so he must continue to suffer with the heat, the dust, and his aching muscles and sore feet.

If our hiker turns his attention from the negative or the positive aspect of his want—whichever occupies his mind—and concentrates on the obstacle, the distance to go, he is most likely to start thinking of some way of eliminating it. Before he has realized it, he may hail a passing auto and ask for a ride. It is just because the average man tends to find a way to eliminate an obstacle as soon as he gets to thinking about it, that it was stated above that, psychologically, recognition of the obstacle is the first step in the satisfying of a want.

Consider another example. A gentleman of fifty years of age realizes from time to time that he has not the strength he used to have; he finds himself getting tired rather frequently; he experiences headaches; his work is less interesting, and so on (negative aspect). He has a general desire to feel better, he wishes to do

things which he does not, however attempt (positive aspect). He secretly attributes his condition to the fact of getting old (an obstacle he cannot overcome). But one day his family physician says to him, "Come in and let me look you over. You don't look well." And the physician locates some disorder (an obstacle he may possibly overcome). Now our middle-aged man finds his troubles concentrated in this particular obstacle. Before this, his wants were so general he more or less ignored them. Now they are intensified because they are focused on one thing which must be eliminated. A vague longing is converted into a dynamic want by emphasis upon the obstacle. It is analogous to the effect of damming a great river. A quiet though mighty flow is changed into a source of energy.

Subsequent chapters will make clear all that this word "want" means, but it has been explained sufficiently so that it can be used in analyzing our sales interview.

ANALYSIS OF THE BAGLEY-BARNES SALES INTERVIEW IN TERMS OF THE BUYING FORMULA

The object of this chapter is to show that the buying formula (Fig. 1) will apply to a sale as well as to a purchase. The Bagley-Barnes interview is accordingly analyzed here in terms of the five headings:—(1) the wants of the prospect, (2) the solution, (3) the reasons that the solution is adequate, (4) the pleasant feelings associated with the solution and (5) the act of purchasing.

First, what did Barnes, the prospect, want, which might be satisfied by the salesman?

1. Positive aspect of the want. From what Bagley, the salesman, knew of Barnes, he could guess that Barnes wanted the following:

a. His boy should go to Wesleyan College. This is the primary want; all others are secondary. (The usual primary want appealed to in selling life insurance is the protection of one's wife. But it would be difficult to base a sale on this in the present case because of her recent inheritance of \$35,000.)

b. His boy should become a success in life—a good athlete, a good mixer, have the association of college men after graduation, etc. (But the salesman could not know whether Barnes wanted his boy to work his way through college or not.)

c. His wife should be free from worry and personal sacrifice.

d. He should be approved by his son, daughter, wife, friends, associates in business, and the salesman. That is, he desired that his son would always cherish a high regard and pride for him; that people would say, "Look what Dr. Barnes did for his boy;" that his own conscience would be satisfied that he had done everything possible for his son.

Barnes was planning and working to satisfy all these wants. He was looking forward to the time when he would see his boy entering college. But he was not considering the possibility that he might die, and that in that event his wants might not be satisfied. Consequently, his activities were not directed definitely toward the particular end desired by the salesman, but merely toward the general goal of success in his profession.

It was consequently necessary to emphasize the obstacle aspect of the want, and in connection with it the negative aspect, in order to make Barnes feel that he had certain wants that might never be satisfied.

2. Obstacle aspect of want.

a. The possibility of Barnes' death before his boy finished college, and a subsequent decrease in income for the family. (Barnes was not thinking of this when the salesman called.)

3. Negative aspect of the want. (Barnes was also not thinking of the following possibilities when the salesman called.)

a. His boy might not go to college for lack of funds, or

b. His boy might have to work his way through college, thereby preventing him from getting certain advantages of a college education, or

c. His boy might have to go to some cheaper college than Wesleyan, or

d. His wife might have to worry and sacrifice herself to help the boy, and

e. People generally would not approve of him as much as if he had absolutely guaranteed the boy's education.

Here are the items which would fully arouse Barnes to an appreciation of what he has long been planning to do and to a strong emotional state because the plans were now threatened by the possibility of his death. The most natural response to this

attitude would be to inquire if there were any way of eliminating the effect of his possible death.

Second, what is the solution?

1. An insurance policy will pay the boy's expenses through college in case the father dies.

2. The particular policy that will do all this is the one the salesman has to sell, *i.e.*, a policy of the American Life Insurance Company.

Third, what reasons are presented as to why the policy will adequately satisfy Barnes' wants?

1. The boy will be paid \$3,000 in eight semiannual instalments beginning the September of the year the boy enters college, if the father dies in the meantime. (This is the only contingency that is insured against in this sale.)

2. The money paid out for the policy will not be wasted in case the father does not die, for the policy can be continued and Barnes will receive \$3,000 in his own old age.

In this sale there is no discussion of the relative merits of the salesman's policy and competing company policies. This is usually the case when a salesman has presented his proposition as an adequate solution of what the prospect wants.

Fourth, what pleasant feelings are aroused which help make Barnes desire to buy Bagley's policy?

To answer the question as to what pleasant feelings were aroused to help make Barnes desire Bagley's policy it would be necessary to list everything that was pleasantly experienced by Barnes during the interview, taking into account also everything that was unpleasantly experienced by him. The more the prospect experiences pleasantness as opposed to unpleasantness the more he will like the salesman and his proposition.

In this connection consider what the effect must have been on Barnes when he heard such expressions as the following:

"little son already interested in college" (line 23)

"as you look back on your own experience in college" (29)

"increase his ability to earn a living and to take a high rank in his community" (35)

"feel happier" (62)

"a high-spirited boy would probably hesitate to allow his mother to send him to college" (64)

“without requiring any sacrifice on the part of his mother” (124)

“is there anything else that would mean so much to your boy at such a time?” (128). Etc.

Contrast all this forward-looking plan for the boy's success and happiness with the opposite type of selling, in which is played up all the trouble that might befall the boy because his father did not carry insurance.

Fifth, what elements facilitate the purchase?

In order to study selling it is necessary to divide the process up into small parts for ease of presentation. When this is done the student is very apt to obtain a false notion of the whole process because he studies, not the whole process, but only its parts. This is strikingly so in the case of studying the act of purchasing, the “close” as it is usually designated. The student comes to believe that after the presentation has been made then the salesman does some new things in order to close. This is correct but only to a limited degree. He does make the act of purchasing as easy as possible. And the process of doing this is peculiarly part of the close. But a complete and true conception of the elements entering into the purchase must involve all that has gone before. Only when the salesman has definitely in mind completing the sale when he commences his interview, and maintains this objective throughout the interview, is he likely to secure the sale.

A purchase occurs when there is a sufficiently strong *want* and a *solution*, a way of satisfying it, that appears to be adequate. If the want is not strong enough or the manner of satisfying it not sufficiently understood and accepted, so that the prospect would not buy of his own accord, he may be led to purchase if the salesman closes the interview in a proper manner.

The three elements that distinctly facilitate a purchase other than the fundamental elements of want and solution are: first, keeping all competing solutions and wants out of the prospect's mind; second, making the act of purchasing as easy as possible; and third, giving him a “push.” In a subsequent chapter these elements will be discussed at length. At this point it is sufficient to give a general idea of them.

The successful salesman endeavors to eliminate from the mind of the prospect all competing wants—not only wants that can

be satisfied by purchasing a competing trade-marked commodity but also any commodity that will satisfy another set of wants. For example, the insurance salesman tries to prevent the prospect from thinking about other insurance salesmen, or about investing money in bonds or business, or about buying an auto, or a home. It is because a salesman does manipulate the mental processes of his prospect so that the prospect comes to feel strongly the want for the salesman's commodity and to think little or not at all about other wants, that people buy more from a salesman than they would purchase on their own initiative.

In selling, the act of purchasing is facilitated by making it easy to buy. Every exertion that must be made in order to buy is an obstacle to buying. Many a retail merchant finally refuses to buy because he has suddenly appreciated the labor involved in rearranging his shelves to accommodate the new line of goods. Many a college professor has refused to use a new textbook because it will entail much labor on his part in rearranging his lectures. Ease of purchase and ease of installing and using the commodity (particularly as these affect the purchaser) are accordingly factors that affect the sale.

The more a prospect has resisted the salesman, the more figuratively he has set his brakes, the more necessary is it for the salesman to give him "a push" at the end in order to start him going. Even after a prospect has ceased to resist, is really sold, he will remain silent, just as an auto will often stand on a gentle slope after the brakes are released. But if the auto is given a jar it will start rolling. So if the prospect can be induced to do some little act, as bringing a glass of water, or deciding which one of the bindings he likes the best, or figuring out some calculation, he will come along and sign when he would not do so a moment before.

In the Bagley-Barnes interview, the purchase was facilitated by:

1. Intensifying Barnes' wants for his boy, wife, etc.:
2. Showing Barnes how the effects of his possible death could be eliminated through life insurance.
3. Leading him to buy through:
 - a. Keeping all competing solutions and wants out of his mind.
 - b. Making the act of purchasing as easy as possible.
 - c. Giving him many "pushes."

In this case the pressure was constant rather than jerky. For from the very first "yes" to the question as to whether he had a son, Barnes was successfully kept by Bagley in an acquiescent attitude. He was unable to deny or disagree with any of Bagley's statements or arguments as they were all calculated to fit in with his own ideas. Each agreement led him nearer the purchase, and his final "yes" was only one step ahead in the path he had been following—really easier for him than an abrupt "about face" would have been.

Questions

1. What are the three aspects of a want? Illustrate the three aspects in selling: (a) aspirin (or quinine); (b) pair of shoes; and (c) real estate in a new residence district.
2. What elements facilitate a purchase, *i.e.*, facilitate the final act of buying? Illustrate each of them in selling one of the commodities named in Question 1.
3. The Bagley-Barnes sales interview illustrates the sequence with which ideas are presented when the salesman is presenting the subject from the buyer's point of view. What would have been the sequence if Bagley had presented the subject from the average salesman's point of view?
4. Are the essential elements of a sale the same as those given in Chap. II for a purchase? How does a sale differ from a purchase?

References

Complete sale interviews are given in the following:

- STRONG, E. K., JR.: "Psychology of Selling Life Insurance," chaps. I, II, XVI, XXII, XXIII, XXV, 1922.
- WHITEHEAD, H.: "Principles of Salesmanship," chaps. XXIII-XXV, XXXIII-XXXVI, 1917.

CHAPTER IV

FURTHER ANALYSIS OF SALES INTERVIEWS

The term "sale" may be either broad or narrow in connotation. The essential in any sale (or in any purchase, for the two are but two aspects of one fact), is the exchange of the seller's commodity or service for the buyer's money, to the satisfaction of both. This exchange is what is meant by "sale" or "purchase" in the narrow and most usual sense. But the student of salesmanship must recognize that there is more to the process than the exchange—there is all the fringe and halo of the purchaser's wants, means, and limitations on the one side, and all the influences which affect the seller on the other. These latter, which have to do with market conditions, supply and demand, overhead, etc., are beyond the purpose at present. The chief interest is in the state of the purchaser before, during, and after a sale and all these phases will be considered under the term, "a complete process of purchasing."

Distinction between a Sales Transaction and the Complete Process of Purchasing.—Recently I walked into a 5 and 10 Cent Store, sauntered along the counter until I saw mousetraps on display, read the sign of "3 for 10 cents," picked up three traps and handed them to the saleswoman, at the same time presenting 10 cents with the other hand. She rang up the money, wrapped up the traps, and handed them to me; whereupon I walked out. Although no word was said on either side, this may be called a complete sales transaction—the essentials of a sale were present.

But it cannot be said that these steps alone constitute the complete process involved. Many other items must be added to those in the preceding paragraph before the entire picture is presented. For example, the day before I bought the traps I discovered that mice were in the pantry, I appreciated what that meant in loss of food and in annoyance to my wife. I

remembered that mice were caught with traps, that the best trap I knew of was sold in 5 and 10 Cent Stores, and that there was such a store in Palo Alto. I accordingly decided then and there to buy some traps, also some cheese. And still further I remembered my decision when I was downtown, and I went to the store and bought them.

The process of purchasing, in the broad sense, starts with the rise of a want and ends with the experiencing of the purchased solution. To date I have caught one mouse. From past experience I feel fairly sure there is at least one more in the house, and so the traps are still set. I have experienced a certain amount of satisfaction with my purchase so far, but the incident is not yet closed.

The very simplest type of selling is of that sort outlined above in the buying of a mousetrap. Here the decision to buy has occurred prior to meeting the salesman. The most complex type of selling is that where the salesman brings to the mind of the buyer a want of which he had not been conscious and then sells him a solution to it. The interview in the preceding chapter illustrates such selling. In between these extremes are to be found many gradations.

If a retail merchant, for instance, views selling only in the light of what takes place in his store, he must come to a very erroneous notion of the subject. But if he realizes that his sales force can do relatively little in many cases to influence the purchases that are made because the decision to buy was made before the customers entered the store, then such a merchant has a clean-cut objective for his advertising. And that objective will not be the simple announcement of his wares at sales prices but it will include the influencing of people to make up their minds to buy his commodities and at his store.

The extent to which the retail salesman fails to see selling in its true and broad aspect is illustrated by an incident related by Roland Cole, writing in the October, 1923, issue of *Sales Management*:

At a dinner in Detroit, a speaker said he had not bought an auto because no one had asked him to do so. The president of Detroit's largest department store said to the speaker, "That may have happened in the automobile business, but it could not have happened in my store."

His claim was challenged by the speaker, who offered to send two people into his store, a man and a woman, give each one \$200 in cash, with instructions to buy only when invited to buy. If, at the end of three days, either the man or the woman had any money left, the store proprietor would pay the speaker an equal amount. If they both spent their \$200, the speaker stood to lose \$400, which the department store man would thereby gain in sales.

On a specified morning the man and the woman entered the store, each with \$200 in cash, and went separate ways. It was agreed that each one would wander from counter to counter looking at merchandise. In the event of a clerk asking them to buy, they were to buy; but if the clerk said, "Is there anything I can do for you?" or "Are you looking for something?" or "Are you being waited on?" or any similar question, the man would answer, "I am waiting for my wife," and the woman, "I am waiting for my husband."

Upon the evening of the third day neither the man nor the woman had purchased a single dollar's worth of merchandise, and the only thing to report was that in a half dozen instances the woman had been offered a chair and invited to make herself comfortable while waiting for her husband. They had been spoken to by clerks hundreds of times but in no case after they had submitted that talismanic bit of intelligence about the delinquent spouse, had a sales person said, "While you are waiting let me show you . . .," or anything that approached it.

Clearly, none of these salespeople considered that their jobs of selling included the arousing of wants in the minds of prospective customers. Their whole function was to help people decide whether they would buy this coat or that one and to take the money, but never to induce a person to buy a coat who had not come into the store for that purpose.

Several sales interviews follow. All of them illustrate good procedure from the standpoint of the principles of this text. As you read them over, keep constantly in mind the buying formula given in Chap. II and note how it is exemplified in the sales interviews.

Selling a Set of Reference Books for Use of School Children.—Salesmen selling this set of ten reference books in their house-to-house canvass are instructed to obtain the names of parents and children from school teachers as far as possible. They are emphatically told to wait until they get inside the home before commencing what follows, and that while giving this introductory talk they are not to have their prospectus in their hand or lap.

The sales talk they are expected to memorize and use is as follows:

Opening Remarks.—Mrs. Smith, the mothers are being visited at this time in a movement to make the school work more effective under the new methods of teaching.

You may have noticed that the school work today is very different from what it was in *your* school days. (Give prospect opportunity to comment.) We find many mothers who do not understand what our teachers are trying to accomplish and do not, therefore, know how to give necessary cooperation in the important task of education. 5

When you and I were in school, Mrs. Smith, our studies were principally memory work—"learning by heart" as we used to say. 10 But the aim of the earnest teachers today is to stimulate the pupil to think rather than to memorize, to investigate, to get information through his own efforts. With this purpose in mind the teachers assign subjects for investigation, compositions to write, questions to answer. You probably know something about this supplementary 15 or project work, as it is called.

But, unfortunately, Mrs. Smith, the teachers have had much trouble with this work for a great many years. Pupils who are assigned topics to look up, return to school and say, "I couldn't get the information—mother was too busy to help me," or "mother doesn't 20 understand the new methods."

Now as a matter of fact the teachers have had much trouble in trying to get Walter to help himself. They do not want you to help him.

The difficulties encountered with this important phase of the school work were discussed by teachers throughout the country and finally an organization known as the Home and School Education Society was formed to study the situation and to devise a remedy for the trouble. 25

About two hundred teachers were chosen to prepare lessons in all the grades from the kindergarten to the last year of high school. 30 They have worked out a wonderful chart plan which is proving a blessing to mothers, teachers, and pupils. Under this new plan, the pupils get their research work quickly, effectively, and lastingly. It has proved such a splendid success that we want every mother to know about it. 35

But I can show you more quickly than I can tell you about it. I have a great number of mothers to see today, and I can stay only a few minutes.

Under this new plan, the pupil is greatly assisted by pictures. 40 Pictures, you know, Mrs. Smith, make a vivid and permanent impression on the child's mind and enable him to understand much more quickly.

Take the study of geography, for example: You know the pupils are required to learn, among other things, the products and industries of the different states and countries. In your day and mine, Mrs. Smith, we simply repeated these facts over and over until we had 45

committed them to memory, then we went to school and recited, and then—we forgot all about it. And I feel sure that if you were called upon now to name the industries and products of any state you could not do it because you did not receive a lasting impression under the old way of learning. 50

But under this new picture-chart plan, the pupils learn with one-fourth the effort you and I put into our work and they learn in a way they don't forget. 55

Demonstration.—Let us suppose the lesson for tomorrow is on Michigan, and Walter's class is told to come prepared to name the industries and products of Michigan, and tell just where in the state they are located. He can turn to his picture-chart—

(Produce your prospectus and open instantly to the graphic on Michigan—and find here a presentation of the information he must learn.) 60

Down here (indicate) he sees a picture of the automobile, and in the lesson that goes with this chart (turn momentarily to page 1835) he learns that three-fourths of all the automobiles in the world are made in Michigan. Here (indicate) he sees the salt represented and here (point) he sees the furniture of Michigan. Here (indicate) are the grains and here the fruits (point) and vegetables (point) of Michigan, including the celery and the sugar beets (point). 65

Over on this page (indicate) Walter sees where these various products and industries are located. He sees that celery (point) comes from down here, sugar beets from here (point) and copper, iron, and lumber from up here (indicate). 70

(It is of the most importance that you follow implicitly the instructions given as to the time to produce your prospectus. Don't get it out before the point indicated and don't let it be seen before that point. Don't even think about it before that point.) 75

Closing the Sale.—(This plan should be followed closely. The various steps in this closing talk are arranged in a definite, scientific sequence to compel action): 80

1. You will understand now, Mrs. Smith, how important this plan is in its relation to school work and how much it means to Walter. I know you will be pleased to learn that these lessons are being placed in the homes of our boys and girls on such easy terms that the poorest and humblest may have them as well as the rich who have thousands of dollars invested in helpful home libraries. In fact the terms of sale are just what you would expect to pay for the rental of the lessons if you could rent them for your home. 85

2. The lessons have been bound in a strong and durable binding so they can stand the wear and tear of constant use. 90

3. The teachers who had this work in charge decided to offer the lessons in three bindings to meet the different conditions of home finance and to let the mothers pay for them on any terms they desired—to permit the mothers to name their own terms so that every home

might have the educational opportunity and advantage which this plan provides, so that even a poor washerwoman's children may have the same home opportunities as the rich banker's sons. (Produce stretcher.) This is the way they would appear in your bookcase or on your library table.

4. You see there are ten volumes. These first seven volumes (fold stretcher to show only first books) contain the reference material arranged alphabetically so that Walter can turn quickly to any subject on which he needs information. If, for example, the history class is asked to get something on the Monroe Doctrine or the Punic Wars he will turn to this volume (indicate) or this. Or if it is some character in history, such as Charlemagne, or Socrates, or Napoleon, he finds them alphabetically just like the names in the telephone directory, and he finds the information given in a style that interests him and develops his self-reliance. The last three volumes (fold stretcher to show only Study Guides backs) are called Study Guides. Here Walter will find outlines of study, suggestive questions, and many special departments which guide and systematize his research work in these other volumes. He does not need to bother mother about his lessons—he does not have to go back to school and offer an excuse.

5. These three Study Guides volumes correspond to the three divisions of a child's education—Volume VIII (indicate) is devoted to the needs of the child before school begins; Volume IX is for the child in the grammar grades; and Volume X is for the high school studies—the sciences, literature, commercial law, and so on.

6. Mrs. Smith, we are arranging for the delivery of these lessons now. We are taking the names of mothers who are interested in education and who are willing to cooperate in an effort to improve the school work. I don't believe there is anything you can put into your home that would mean so much to Walter in his present studies and his future life. These lessons make a wonderful companion for your children. They stimulate their interest in school, change drudge work into delightful home study, broaden their knowledge and develop self-reliance and independence.

7. The complete set just as you see it here is delivered to you on a small initial payment, and you can pay the balance in monthly payments just as you please. The library buckram binding is only \$39.50. This is a strong and durable binding containing exactly the same lessons and illustrations as the bindings that cost more. You can name your own terms—you can pay at \$10 a month or \$8 or \$5 or even as little as \$3 a month, which means only 10 cents a day. In this binding the initial payment is made as low as \$3.50.

8. (Explain the other bindings and terms.)

9. (Show the loose-leaf service certificate and explain.)

10. (Show the monthly Service Bulletin and explain.)

11. (Show picture of the set illustrated in large circular.)

12. Here is a good picture of the complete library just as it would appear in your home. Isn't that attractive? Wouldn't you have been delighted with such a help in your school days? Some mothers 145 have said it made them feel like going back to school again. Here is the way we arrange this. You select the binding you like. The library will be delivered within a few days. A small initial payment brings you the entire library which will be delivered within a few days with all shipping charges prepaid. You can arrange the remaining 150 payments as you please.

(If mother seems undecided, go back to your prospectus for five minutes of additional demonstration before showing her the subscription blank).

Analysis of This Sales Interview.—The opening remarks of this sales interview are devoted to arousing in the mind of the mother the desire that her children should get their lessons better in school. Such a want will be intensified by the mother, herself, as she realizes that Johnny is not doing so very well, that Mrs. Brown's boy has just jumped a grade leaving Johnny behind, etc. The negative aspect will be so supplied spontaneously and so, also, the positive aspect—the dream of great success for each of her children. (Both of these could be touched upon more than they are, to advantage.) The obstacle aspect must be supplied by the salesman, for the mother does not appreciate just why her children are not succeeding. When it is made clear that the children fail to do their work because of the lack of proper reference books, then and only then is the mother interested in the books for sale. And the more strongly she wants Johnny to catch up to Willie Brown the more interest the books have for her. Not that she cares a rap about the books themselves but she comes to see that they may make it possible for Johnny to do better in school.

Selling a Gasoline Pump to a Hardware Dealer.—This presentation appears in the October, 1923, issue of *Sales Management* "Warming Up the Buyer Who Just Sits There and Lets You Talk," by J. D. Rauch.

The prospect was owner of a large, new, brick hardware and general store. To Bowman, the salesman, everything about the place bespoke thrift and progressiveness. The sidewalk in front was wide and clean; in fact, the place had an inviting appearance. The windows were full of articles of the highest grade, including automobile accessories and the best-known makes of tires.

An acquaintance explained to Bowman that the prospect was known to all pump and tank salesmen and had been solicited many times, but that he was dead set against such equipment from the standpoint that the profits from the sale of gasoline would not pay for the time and trouble of running out to the curb to run it.

Upon entering the store Bowman noted clean stock of the best grades, all neatly arranged, but no customers. The proprietor was large, good-natured, thrifty, evidently catering to the farmer trade of a large and prosperous community.

"Don't get up!" said Bowman, "I'm only after a little information. I was attracted by your display of such-and-such a tire in the window, and because I use that particular make myself and find them superior, I was just curious to know how many you sold a week. I'm not in the tire business so you need have no fear." He said he had not had very much success, although he had sold a few.

Bowman's account of the resulting interview follows.

"Well, that's too bad," I said, "if you could only get a chance to tell every farmer who drives into town what you and the rest of us know about that tire, you'd be busy selling tires every day. Why don't you put a hitch rack out in front?"

Of course, he thought I was "nutty," but that remark seemed to arouse his interest. You see he had what I term a "negative personality," so he must be approached from a negative angle.

"Sure," I continued, "a hitch rack. I take it that you learned the merchandising business in a large general store. It did a prosperous business, too, and held the biggest trade in the community. And you also had the biggest hitch rack in town in front of that store, so as to get all the teams possible to stop there."

That must have awakened some fond memories, for he got up from his chair and started to talk about that store, and I kept bringing up the importance of that hitch rack. Finally he admitted that without that hitch rack they could not have held their trade.

"Well," I said, "how can you expect to get and hold that same trade today without a hitch rack? The only difference is that they drive automobiles instead of teams, so your hitch rack should be one or more large, attractive gasoline pumps out there in front."

He shied a little from force of habit, but I told him I was only suggesting it to him as a common-sense, profitable idea.

He said he never had looked on it in that light, and there had been so many salesmen call on him to sell him a pump that he had formed a real antagonism toward them, but that the next one who came along he would surely look into prices, etc.

Well, he bought a large outfit from me. I didn't sell it—he bought it with the hitch rack idea in his mind. I only sold him the negative idea.

Analysis of the Sale.—The unsuccessful salesmen had tried to sell the hardware merchant in terms of his want for additional

profit from his business. But the merchant did not want extra profit sufficiently to be willing to keep running out to the curb to attend to customers. Once having made up his mind on that point it became practically impossible to sell him in terms of the usual sales talk. Bowman appealed to a much stronger motive—not more additional profit from selling gasoline, but the greater profits from selling his regular line of hardware. The key to this sale was the clever emphasis on an obstacle to success which was immediately appreciated by the merchant. Once the gasoline pump was identified with the valued old hitching rack, the dealer was sold.

Selling Soap to a Retail Grocer Who Has Not Previously Carried the Salesman's Brands.—The following was prepared at the writer's request by W. E. Lange, then Research Assistant of the Bureau of Personnel Research, Carnegie Institute of Technology.

Mr. Lange had just returned from an extended trip in which he had accompanied, one after another, some two dozen salesmen as they called upon 500 retail grocers. He had had in this way an excellent opportunity to study the sales tactics of these salesmen who were selling an established line of soaps and soap products. Mr. Lange made the following preliminary observations:

The salesman calling upon the average retail grocer today has probably been preceded by half a dozen or more "knights of the grip" and most likely, before the day closes, will be followed by an equal number. The retail grocer trade is being intensively worked and the mere sight of a salesman frankly bores the dealer.

The "happy-go-lucky" salesman of yesterday with his ready smile, his hearty handshake, and his fund of stories can no longer get orders. His former "all-sufficient" tools, the price list and order book are woefully inadequate. His wonderful personality, even the dealer's friendship for him, seem to get him nowhere. He is rapidly discovering that he must use *real salesmanship* or else "fall by the wayside." That group of salesmen selling soap to the retail grocer is probably experiencing the truth of these remarks in the bitter school of "hard knocks" more forcibly than any other group.

Competition in the soap business is very keen and every day finds the grocer approached with some special deal on a brand of soap or soap powder of which he has never heard, but which, on paper, will yield him a fancy profit. The salesman handling an established line of soap products, who has been preceded by such a proposition, must use real sales tactics to sell his line of goods. In addition to this type of com-

petition he must meet real competition from other established brands.

To sell the grocer, an elaborate sales talk cannot be used. His time is too valuable. The salesman must size up the dealer accurately and then drive home to him, in a concise sales talk, the quality of the goods, the customer's goodwill he will build by handling these goods, and the profit in the goods.

The Sales Interview.—Driving through the central part of Georgia the salesman suddenly noticed a new store. "Hello," he said, "there is a new store. I must call on the proprietor and see if he needs any of my goods." Stopping his car, he got out and entered the store.

The store was typical of the extreme South. A small building of rough, unfinished, and unpainted boards housed a couple of hundred dollars worth of groceries, tobacco, candy, etc. A glance at the shelves disclosed the fact that the dealer's supply of soap was extremely low. A few bars of a competing brand of laundry soap and a couple dozen cakes of a cheap violently colored brand of toilet soap constituted the entire stock. 5 10

The dealer proved a young chap in the early twenties who evidently had had but little previous grocery experience. The site he had selected for his store seemed a logical one, and as he had no competitors, he was a good prospect.

"How do you do?" said the salesman. "My name is Brown. I am with the Blank Soap Company." 15

"My name is Perkins, Mr. Brown."

"I am glad to know you, Mr. Perkins. I suppose you know the products our company handles—Royal soap, Excell soap, K N soap powder, etc. I am here to sell you these products direct." 20

"What do you mean by direct?"

"I mean that we sell these products direct from our warehouses to you. I am not selling through the jobber. Selling products direct to you, we eliminate expense, sell to you cheaper, and give you better service in the way of quick delivery and fresh stock. We will deliver to you, freight prepaid, an order as small as two boxes. However, I always like to write up a five-box order because it means a saving of almost \$1.25 to the dealer. Our terms are very liberal also. If you pay your bill within ten days, you may deduct 2 per cent as discount, otherwise our terms are cash at the end of thirty days." 25

"I don't believe I need five boxes of soap, Mr. Brown." 30

"You don't have to take five boxes of one kind of soap. You can make up any assortment of five boxes and get a reduction on each box."

"I couldn't use five boxes of your products."

"You are getting pretty low on soap. You have only a few bars of laundry soap on your shelves. You'll need some soap soon." 35

Reaching into his sample case, the salesman drew out a cake of Excell soap, unwrapped it, and handed it to the dealer.

"Here is a fine cake of soap. That soap has been on the market longer than you and I have been on this earth, and it is still selling well. It sells especially well in this part of the country. Selling soap like that at 5 cents, you are making a good profit for yourself and also giving your customers a fine value for their money. Just now we have a special deal on Excell. We give one case free with five cases, or a half a case with two and one-half cases. This makes the price very low to you. Let's figure what it costs you per cake!" 40 45

Getting out a pad, the salesman started to figure before the eyes of the dealer, the dealer meanwhile following with interest.

"The five-box price is \$4. With each box you get twenty cakes of soap free. Four dollars divided by 120 equals $3\frac{1}{3}$ cents. As a 5-cent seller this soap will make you a profit of $1\frac{2}{3}$ cents per cake, or 50 per cent on your money. In other words, you will make \$2 on an investment of \$4. Can you beat that? These profits are not paper profits. Excell will sell for you because you are giving your customers as much value for a nickel as you now give them for 7 cents when you sell that laundry over there on your shelf." 50 55

Going to the shelf, the dealer picked up a cake of the competing laundry soap and then compared its size, weight, color, and odor to the corresponding qualities of Excell. He then said, "I will take two boxes." 60

"Mr. Perkins," said Brown, "I can't give you a good price on only two boxes of soap. Let me write you down for two and a half boxes and you will receive half a box free; then let me write you down for two more boxes of some other of our products." 65

"I can't handle five boxes. I am just starting in business, and I can't tie up much capital." 65

"You won't tie up your capital. Your account will be carried for 30 days and in that time you will have practically all of the five boxes sold. Do you have any calls for a high-grade toilet soap?" 70

"No, I don't; my customers are all niggers and they want these colored or perfumed soaps." 70

"Well, how about washing powder? You haven't got a bit. I bet you have calls for washing powder. Here's a powder you ought to sell, K N. It's the biggest 5-cent seller on the market and yields to your a nice profit of $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents a package. Let me add two boxes to your Excell order and give you advantage of the five-box price." 75

"All right, send me the five boxes."

Brown sized this dealer up accurately and sold him despite the fact that he seemed to be a reserved and non-committal individual. By comparing the quality of his goods to that of the competing brand, by stressing the consumer's goodwill that the dealer would build by handling his soap, and by showing the

dealer the profit in black and white, Brown sold the dealer and gained another customer for his company.

Selling the Dealer More Than He Wishes to Buy.—Many salesmen find it difficult to sell to a woman. Women buyers evidently do not worry Smith, as may be judged from the following sale:

Entering a small store in the factory district of one of the great industrial centers of the country, Smith greeted the proprietor, an elderly Jewish woman.

"What can I do for you today, Mrs. Abrams?"

"How much is White soap?"

5

"White soap costs you \$4.75 in five-box lots and \$5 in single-case lots."

"What! Why I only need two boxes and yet your five-box price is higher than the chain store's retail price. I bought ten cakes from a chain store the other day for 45 cents."

10

"You can't buy soap at that price now. Soap has gone up. It now costs you 6 cents at the A. & P."

"That K. Q. store across the street is still selling ten cakes for 45 cents."

"They may be, but they will soon raise their prices. The A. & P. stores act as a barometer for all the chain stores. When their prices go up, the prices of all other chain stores go up."

15

"When I need soap, I am going to buy from the chain stores and not from you."

"Suppose your customers find that you are buying from the chain stores. How will it look?"

20

"I won't let them find out."

"You can't buy enough soap from the chain stores. Besides their prices are already up or will be up in a day or so."

"No, I won't buy from you."

25

"Here's something you can sell, Mrs. Abrams—K N powder."

"I don't want any, I've got some other powder on the shelf."

"Yes, but you haven't got much left. K N is a better value for the money, and a quicker seller. Let me weight one of those packages. Do you see what it weighs? Now, see what K N weighs, at least 2 ounces more. Let me order you some. You can take the discount and make money on these goods. You also need some Royal soap. Let me put you down for two boxes of White soap, two boxes of Royal soap, and a box of K N powder."

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"I'll figure out the cost for you on this pad. Two boxes of White soap cost you \$9.50, two boxes of Royal soap cost you \$8.50, and a box of K N costs you \$3.50. That is \$21.50 in all. Take your discount and it is \$20.47."

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"Why should I pay for the soap right away when it takes me two months to sell it? I don't make any money that way."

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"You'll make money on this order. You get \$12 for your White soap, \$10 for your Royal soap, and \$5 for K N powder. That is \$27. Your profit is \$5.93."

"I'll take two boxes of Royal soap and a box of White soap, if you will sell them to me at the five-box price."

"I can't do that, Mrs. Abrams. It would not be fair to other small dealers. Besides my job wouldn't be worth anything if I did that."

"Then I don't want anything from you."

The salesman started to close his sample case, but just before closing it, he handed the box of K N powder to the woman and said, "You really need this powder."

As the woman continued to handle the package, he said, "A single box of that will cost you \$3.75. Your profit will be 33½ per cent. It will sell well for you."

"Give me a box."

"You are making a good profit on that powder, but you can make still more. Order two boxes of White and two boxes of Royal and you get the five-box price on all of them."

"I'll take a box of White and a box of Royal and no more."

"Mrs. Abrams, here is the slip on which I figured your profit before. Your percentage of profit is much higher if you buy five boxes. At the single-box price your profit on K N is 33½ per cent. At the five-box price your profit is about 43 per cent. Isn't that extra profit worth something to you? Order one box of K N, two of White and two of Royal and you not only get this increased profit on K N but you also increase your profit on Royal and White!"

"I guess, I'll take all five boxes then."

"You won't make any mistake in doing it, Mrs. Abrams. You need all of it, and can sell all of it at a good profit."

Mr. Lange's comments on this sale:

This particular sale was interesting for several reasons. First, because the complaint of the small independent dealers against the cut-rate prices of the chain stores was raised. The salesman was fortunate, at the time, in having an effective comeback—the chain stores had really raised their prices. Generally, the salesman is not so fortunate and must proceed carefully, for he is touching an extremely sore spot of the small retailer. He cannot bluntly tell the dealer that his merchandising methods are most often the cause of the great difference between chain-store prices and his own, nor can he convince the small dealer that chain stores often sell at cost or less to draw business.

All possibility of a sale seemed to have been lost in this particular case. Smith's persistence, however, had its reward. By returning to K N powder after Mrs. Abrams had definitely refused to buy anything, Smith used the proper tactics. Her interest in the powder seemed to be greater than her interest in the soaps, although she needed them all equally. It was logical to assume, therefore, that

her resistance could be most easily broken along the line of her interest. Having penetrated her resistance by selling her the powder, building up the order progressively to five boxes became a much easier task.

Selling a dealer more than he wants, or "loading him" as it is sometimes called, is not to be commended unless the dealer really needs the goods. In this case, the dealer was not loaded. Although she had previously never purchased more than a couple of boxes, she always had them disposed of before the salesman made his next call. There seems to be little doubt that with a slightly greater effort she could dispose of one or two boxes more in the same period of time. In selling her more than she wanted, therefore, Smith really did her a service.

Selling Insurance to a Prospect Who Has All He Wants.—In the selling of life insurance, a salesman is more frequently forced to give a complete sales presentation than in the selling of most other commodities. It seems, therefore, appropriate to consider another life insurance sales interview.

This interview was prepared by one of the writer's former students, Paul K. Judson, a San Francisco agent of the Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company. It very well illustrates the theories set forth in this book; at the same time, it is known that very satisfactory results have been obtained through its use.

The interview follows a telephone appointment made after the prospect has received a three-page letter outlining what is a complete life insurance program.

The Interview.

Salesman: Good morning, Mr. Prospect. I'm Mr. Judson of the Penn Mutual. I'm very glad to meet you.

Prospect: I'm glad to meet you, Mr. Judson, although I'm afraid you're only wasting your time. I'm loaded with insurance, and couldn't carry any more if I wanted to.

Salesman: Then its a cinch I can't sell you anything. I can't sell you anything you don't want, and I don't want to sell you anything you don't need. But, as I told you over the phone, it's my business to know what all companies and all policies will do, and I may be able to show you how you can get more value out of what you are already carrying. You're married?

Prospect: Yes.

Salesman: Family?

Prospect: Boy and girl.

Salesman: Good for you. What are their ages, may I ask?

Prospect: The boy is six and the girl is four.

Salesman: Both in good health, I suppose?

Prospect: Yes, they're in perfect health.

Salesman: That's fine. Has the boy started school yet?

Prospect: He starts in this fall.

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Salesman: It's looking a long ways ahead, of course, but I suppose you are going to send him to college? My boy is looking forward to Stanford but I imagine if California keeps having such wonderful football teams he is liable to decide on California.

Prospect: Well, my boy doesn't pay much attention to football yet, but I want him to go to college, of course.

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Salesman (after a slight pause): Mr. Prospect, did it every occur to you that your life insurance might prove to be no protection at all for your family?

Prospect: Why, no. What do you mean?

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Salesman: Let me put it this way. The ordinary man thinks when he takes out a life insurance policy that he has solved a problem. He doesn't realize that in giving his wife a certain sum of money to invest he is putting her up against the toughest problem a woman ever has to face. Instead of leaving something which is going to take care of her, he leaves her something to take care of, and in a pitifully large number of cases she loses the money. We paid a Berkeley woman a few years ago a little over \$50,000 when her husband died. Now undoubtedly when he bought that insurance he figured something like this: "6 per cent on \$50,000 is \$3,000 a year, or \$250 a month. That will give mother all she will need to keep the family together and educate the children." And she handled the money just the way he expected her to. She didn't buy any oil stock and she didn't squander any of it. She *followed the advice of his business associates* and attempted to complete several of the business enterprises which he was engaged in when he died. They didn't succeed, and she got all that money back into general circulation inside of two years. And his three children will not get the education he planned for them, just because he failed to realize the difference between *life insurance* and *protection*.

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Prospect: But how are you going to prevent such a thing? What insurance can I take that will do those things?

Salesman: I'll come to that in just a minute. That man did just what most buyers of insurance do. Instead of leaving his family a structure which would take care of them he gave his wife a pile of building materials and said "Here they are. Now you build your own House of Protection." His wife failed, as most women do, because of the utter lack of experience in this very difficult job.

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That experience has become so common that one of the large life insurance companies recently made a survey of the claims they had paid out in cash and came to the conclusion that seven years, at the outside, was the length of time you could expect such money to last. Personally, I don't think that insurance of that sort is worth much.

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Prospect: No, I guess it isn't, but I don't know what you are going to do about it.

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Salesman: Mr. Prospect, you may be sure that I wouldn't think of coming here and uncovering this problem if I were not prepared to offer a solution, and just to show you what can be accomplished along this line I'm going to tell you very briefly about my own case. 70
Mrs. Judson and I have four children—boys twelve and five and a girl two years old and a three-months-old baby. I've got some wonderful plans for those kiddies' future. They are all going to college and have every advantage it is possible for me to give them. And it doesn't take much foresight to figure out that those kiddies' dad 75
has got to hustle right along for the next 20 years to come across with the money it is going to take to carry out those wonderful plans. After twenty years Mrs. Judson and I can take it easy. Instead of six of us to support there will be only two, and of course the drain on our finances will be greatly reduced. But I want those plans 80
for the youngsters carried out whether I am here to attend to them or not. And I'm not kidding myself either. The day after I'm gone, and I may well go in the next twenty years, those youngsters will be just as hungry for dinner as they will be tonight. And they'll wear out just as many pairs of shoes. My presence or absence isn't going to 85
affect their needs or desires in the slightest, and I don't want it to affect their opportunities. So this is the way I have things fixed.

When the "Big Bell" rings for me, Mrs. Judson will receive \$3,000 in cash. I figure that will be enough to clean up all expenses incurred at that time—such as doctors' and, possibly, 90
hospital bills, open accounts, etc. I realize that I am figuring rather close on this item, but I believe that \$3,000 will be sufficient as a "clean-up" item.

Of course, that doesn't cover the mortgage on the house. I have a \$6,500 mortgage on our home and have no present intentions of paying it off. I figure I can use the money to better advantage in other ways. But it is one thing for me to carry such a mortgage, with all the details of refinancing, and quite another thing for Mrs. Judson to have to do so. She won't even see the money which will release the mortgage "if, as, and when" I bump off. The Penn Mutual will 100
pay the money direct to the bank and Mrs. Judson will be left with no bills or accounts to worry about, and a home to live in.

Her problem, then, will be to feed five, clothe five, and educate four, and here is the way I've worked it out. Until the older boy is through college and able to take care of himself, \$375 a month. 105
Until the rest of the children have become self-supporting, \$350 a month; and then, when she has no one to care for but herself \$175 a month for the rest of her life. Now Mrs. Judson won't have to give a single thought to investment conditions. The condition of the money market, of current rates of interest, won't bother her in the 110
least. She knows just how much she will have to live on each month and she knows that the first of each succeeding month there will be a check for a like amount placed to her credit. I will admit that

this is not the ideal House of Protection I originally designed, but it is a pretty good compromise, and it has taken a lot of worry and responsibility off my shoulders. If I want to speculate a little on the stock market, which I do now and then, or if I want to buy a new car or indulge in some other extravagance, I have the very comfortable feeling that I am the only one who is taking a chance. So far as Mrs. Judson and the kiddies are concerned, I have all bets copped. Do you know any other way in the world that I could accomplish this?

Prospect: No, I don't, but I don't see how that is going to help me. I've got all the insurance I can afford now.

Salesman: Mr. Prospect, I don't know that you need any more. I didn't come here with the idea of selling any particular type of policy or amount of insurance. I have no idea as yet what you need. And I would be the last man in the world to suggest dropping of the insurance you are now carrying. But as I said before, it is my business to know what all companies and policies will do, and I have no doubt I can show you how you can transform the materials created by your present insurance into some sort of a structure which will provide a measure of shelter for your family. But first let us figure out the kind of a building we want to erect. The first item, of course, is cash. But how much cash do you figure it would take to square yourself with the world?

Prospect: Do you mean right now?

Salesman: That's about the only way we can figure a thing of this sort, although, if you are contemplating any additional liabilities they should be taken into consideration.

Prospect: Well, it wouldn't take much of anything to square me right now.

Salesman: That's exactly what I used to think about myself until I discovered that I would always be about a year behind in income tax and state taxes, and that doctors' and undertaker's bills run into quite a bit of money. Then if a man has been sick a month or two there are additional items. What shall I put down for you?

Prospect: Make it \$2,500.

Salesman: \$2,500. You own your own home, don't you? I suppose, like all the rest of us, you are supporting a mortgage?

Prospect: There is a flat \$4,500 mortgage.

Salesman: That takes care of the cash items. Now the youngsters are six and four. May I ask if there is any reason to suppose that your family has attained its maximum size? I ask this because anything I have to suggest will depend on your answer.

Prospect: I hope not.

Salesman: Good for you. Then the next eighteen or twenty years following your death will undoubtedly be the years of heaviest expense for Mrs. Prospect. What shall I put down as a minimum monthly allowance?

Prospect: I haven't the least idea. I never gave this thing any thought.

Salesman: Well, Mr. Prospect, this is a problem that has got to be solved sometime, and if we don't attempt its solution now, Mrs. Prospect may be forced to face it under less favorable circumstances. Remember the idea of this thing is not to provide luxuries. What we want to determine is the least they will need to get along with and have the advantages you want to give them. 165

Prospect: It's an awfully hard question to decide.

Salesman: I know it is. Would you undertake the job for \$150 a month. 170

Prospect: I would not. They'd have an awful time getting by on twice that.

Salesman: I appreciate, of course, that you would want them to have every comfort, but in constructing your House of Protection the necessities are what we want to provide first. Couldn't they get along on less than \$300 a month? 175

Prospect: Well, make it \$250.

Salesman: \$250. Now that will take care of the expenses of all three. But after the children are able to earn their own living and Mrs. Prospect has only herself to provide for she won't need so much. What shall I put down as the irreducible minimum for the rest of her life? 180

Prospect: I suppose about \$150.

Salesman: That's very nice. I suppose she could get along very comfortably on less than that if she had to, couldn't she? Remember she will own her own home. 185

Prospect: Well, you might make it for \$100 or \$125.

Salesman: I'll put it down at \$100. (Draws a line around the figures he has put down and, after a slight pause, says): Here is the blue print of the House we want to construct: \$2,500 for last expenses, \$4,500 mortgage money, \$250 for the first twenty years, and \$100 for the rest of Mrs. Prospect's life. Now let's take a slant at the materials we have to work with. (Prospect looks blank.) Your present insurance, I mean. 190 195

Prospect: I have \$20,000.

Salesman: Good for you—what companies and amounts, please?

Prospect: I have \$5,000 in the Equitable, \$5,000 in the New York Life, and \$10,000 in New England.

Salesman: You certainly used excellent judgment in picking the companies. \$7,000 from a total of \$20,000 leaves \$13,000, or a monthly income over twenty years of about \$80. Looks as if we'd have to send out for some more material. 200

Prospect: Or else they'll have to live on that.

Salesman: Maybe we'd better revise our figures. You will remember that at my suggestion we modified nearly all of your original figures. Can we cut down that education allowance of \$250 at all? 205

Prospect: I suppose we could, but I'd hate like the dickens to do it.

Salesman: How is business, anyway, pretty good?

Prospect: Yes, we've had a very fair year.

Salesman: I forgot to ask your age, Mr. Prospect. 210

Prospect: Thirty-eight this fall,

Salesman: And Mrs. Prospect?

Prospect: Just three years younger.

Salesman (after some figuring on paper before him): Mr. Prospect, if your income were to be cut down about \$75 a month would it force 215 any drastic change on the family budget?

Prospect: No, we wouldn't notice it.

Salesman: Still play golf two or three times a week, could you?

Prospect: Yes.

Salesman: And not worry if you lost an extra ball occasionally? 220

Prospect: No, I guess not.

Salesman: Mr. Prospect, for that very slight deposit you can bind the materials which you now have into the permanent House of Protection which will give Mrs. Prospect and the children at least the minimum amounts we have decided they will need. Is there any 225 other way in the world that you could use a small portion of your surplus to guarantee these things which mean so much to the family?

Prospect: Does that mean new insurance?

Salesman: It does if you are able to get it. When were you exam- 230 ined last?

Prospect: I took that New England policy about three years ago.

Salesman: Has there been any change in your personal or family history since that time?

Prospect: None that I know of.

Salesman: Dr. Sanborn of our staff is generally free in the after- 235 noons. Can you see him about 3 o'clock today?

Prospect: I'd rather make it about 4:30.

Salesman: That will be fine. I need a little information before you go to him. (Turns application blank over.) What is your first 240 name?

Questions

1. In studying selling why is it essential to distinguish between a sales transaction and the complete process of purchasing?

2. In which of the five sales interviews given in this chapter was a complete process of purchasing most fully illustrated? In which of them was it least illustrated?

3. Analyze the five sales interviews given in this chapter in the same way that the Bagley-Barnes interview was analyzed in Chap. III. Outline:

a. What the prospect wanted. Consider positive, negative, and obstacle aspects.

- b. What the solution was.
- c. What was presented to satisfy the prospect that the solution was adequate.
- d. What was presented to cause the prospect to feel pleasantly toward the whole matter. (Consider also if anything was done to arouse unpleasant feelings.)
- e. What elements facilitated the purchase.

CHAPTER V

WHERE TO PUT THE EMPHASIS

Prospective buyers are not all alike. Some have never heard of the seller's commodity; some may have heard of it, but have never seen it; some have seen it used but never handled it themselves; some have used it once; others, many times; and still others have used it but found it unsatisfactory.

These various prospective buyers must be handled in different ways in order to sell them. Does this mean that radically *different* sales talks or advertisements must be prepared to meet these different attitudes? Or does it mean that essentially the same sales strategy can be used in each case, only that the *emphasis* must be shifted according to the attitude and past experience of the prospect?

In order to show that the latter view is the correct one, a variety of sales problems will be considered in this chapter, and the proper sales strategy for each pointed out. But in doing this it is desired primarily to point out that the solution to each sales problem is implied in the buying formula; and that the differences among these various solutions are merely differences in the *emphasis* that is put upon the elements in the formula.

All this will be illustrated from advertising rather than selling because it is much easier—an advertisement can be seen almost at a glance whereas a sales talk requires many minutes to read. But the principles apply equally well to both advertising and selling.

COMPLETE AND INCOMPLETE PRINTED SALES PRESENTATIONS

The Sanatogen advertisement (Fig. 2) is a complete sales presentation in that it aims to arouse a want and show how it may be satisfied by the advertised product. It makes clear that a trial purchase may be had at the druggist; and, if the reader is not yet ready to spend a dollar, it suggests writing for a booklet.

THE WORLD'S WORK ADVERTISER

"I wish I could stay home tonight and rest"

WHEN the nerves have been exhausted by business or anxieties, even pleasures seem but a new drain. Yes, even "rest" is often hard to get, for sleeplessness frequently adds its burdens to loss of appetite and the distresses of indigestion. To this crisis Sanatogen brings the common-sense help of a concentrated food-tonic containing the very elements that are actually being clamored for by the nerves.

The "lift" of Sanatogen's good cheer to the cells of the system helps sanely and naturally the rebuilding of strength in the body. This has been the experience of many of the most active of the world's famous men and women—as their grateful letters testify. And over 21,000 practicing physicians write, over their own signatures, words of praise which may well give you confidence in Sanatogen's power to restore.

Sanatogen is sold by good druggists everywhere in three sizes from \$1.00.

Sir Gilbert Parker, M.P., the eminent novelist, writes from London: "What a tonic to my mind is this food-tonic, feeding the nerves, invigorating the system, and giving me a new lease of life."

Col. Henry Watterson, the famous Editor writes: "I feel I owe it to truth to state that I have made a thorough trial of Sanatogen and find it most beneficial and invigorating, and I regret that I cannot give it more space in my columns. It is a most valuable food-tonic, and I recommend it to all who are suffering from nervous exhaustion, loss of appetite, and indigestion."

Grand Prize International Congress of Medicine, London, 1913

SANATOGEN

Send

for *Albert Hubbard's New Book*—"Health in the Making." Written in his attractive manner and filled with his shrewd philosophy together with capital advice on Sanatogen, health and contentment. It is free. Tear this off as a reminder to address THE BAUER CHEMICAL CO., 26 D Irving Place, New York.

FIG. 2.—Illustrating a complete sales presentation.

FACTS ABOUT A FAMOUS FAMILY

PRODUCTS OF GENERAL MOTORS

The family's crests

YOU RECOGNIZE these trademarks. They are the crests of manufacturing members of the General Motors family—symbols made immensely valuable by years of public confidence.

"Product of General Motors" is your assurance that back of each company are the resources and strength of the whole big family of which it is a part.

GENERAL MOTORS

BUICK • CADILLAC • CHEVROLET • OLDSMOBILE
GMC TRUCKS

FIG. 3.—Illustrating something other than a complete sales presentation.

Undoubtedly many readers who knew nothing of Sanatogen before reading this advertisement responded in one of these two ways. The General Motors advertisement (Fig. 3), on the other hand, is not a complete sales presentation, for no reader would buy after looking at the advertisement. To begin with, the products are not even mentioned, and only to the extent that the trade names are already known can the reader understand what it is all about.

This distinction has already been made in connection with the sale of a mousetrap and of life insurance. The salesgirl in the 5 and 10 Cent Store "sold" a mousetrap. But, psychologically speaking, the most important elements in the sale took place before the buyer entered the store. In the Bagley-Barnes insurance interview, on the other hand, all the mental processes necessary to buying took place while the salesman was present and because of his guidance of the buyer's thinking and feeling.

A "want ad" is typically an incomplete sales presentation. The want that leads to action is presupposed to exist and to be so strong that the prospective buyer will of his own accord turn to the classified section and later get in touch with the seller. The want ad

DODGE Sedan, good condition, sell chp., 1201 Walnut St.

states what is for sale, gives two reasons for buying and tells where to find the seller. No attempt is made to intensify the the want, to arouse pleasant feelings, or to stimulate the act of buying. A much better advertisement of this sort would be:

DODGE sedan, 1924, driven 6,000
miles on city streets. Five cord
tires, one new, wire wheels, inside
mirror, motormeter, two bumpers,
clock, shock absorbers, and other
extras, upholstery good as new and
motor in perfect condition; must
sell to meet realty obligation.
\$1,050 cash. 1201 Walnut St.

The advertisement of the Frederic N. Whitley, Inc. (Fig. 4) has been run for years and brings in a satisfactory amount of business. The want for a fireplace which will not smoke is brought to the reader's attention. And a solution is guaranteed.

The statement, "No payment accepted unless successful," is offered as proof that the work will be an adequate solution. No pleasant feelings are played up but anyone contemplating getting rid of a smoky fireplace will need no suggestions along that line.

These two small advertisements are sufficient to get the desired business because the elements that are not played up in the advertisements are *already present in the minds of those who reply. But if these elements were not present the advertisements would not produce any business.*

Smoky

Fireplaces

**Made to
Draw**

Also expert services on
general chimney work,
heating and ventilating.

*No payment accepted
unless successful*

Frederic N. Whitley, Inc
Engineers and Contractors
217 FULTON ST., BROOKLYN

FIG. 4.—An effective advertisement but not a complete sales presentation.

WHERE TO PUT THE EMPHASIS

Emphasis may be put upon any one of the elements in the buying formula. Where it should be placed depends upon a variety of circumstances. Without going into detail it may be said:

1. If the prospect does not feel a want that can be satisfied by the commodity, the want must be emphasized.
2. If the prospect does not think of the commodity when he feels the want, the association between want and commodity must be emphasized.
3. If the prospect does not think of the trade name when he thinks of the commodity, the association between commodity and trade name must be emphasized.
4. If the want, commodity, and trade name are well associated, emphasis must be put upon making purchase and use easy.
5. If competition is felt, emphasis must be put upon establishing in the minds of prospects the adequacy of the trade-named commodity, also pleasant feelings toward it. •

6. If sales are desired from new prospects, every element in the formula must be presented.

7. If more sales are desired from old customers, they must be reminded. (Developing new uses is comparable to selling to new customers.)

As all these conditions confront every advertiser more or less all the time, it behooves him to keep all the elements in the formula constantly before the public. But while doing so he can put the emphasis in his advertising upon one element or another depending upon what he considers his most serious problem.

This is quite a different matter from that of designing advertisements to accomplish only one specific end. Such advertisements frequently fail to interest any other readers than those specially aimed at.

1. Emphasis upon Want.—If there is no want, the commodity cannot be profitably sold. It is reported that H. D. Perky, the inventor of Shredded Wheat, spent \$40,000 before he found that the French are not a breakfast-eating people. There was no want there for any kind of breakfast food. To sell them it would be necessary to form habits of eating an Anglo-Saxon breakfast—much too expensive a task for any breakfast-food company.

The picture and heading in the Listerine advertisement (Fig. 5) suggests a want possessed by many women. The copy in small type suggests the possibility of bad breath as the obstacle to be overcome. Interest is naturally aroused in the solution—Listerine.

The Weed Chain advertisement (Fig. 6) arouses a want to be in the position of the man on the left. Much of the copy emphasizes the negative aspect of this want—the unpleasantness of being responsible for an accident—but the complacency of the man with the cigar causes the positive aspect of the want to be primarily brought out.

The International Correspondence School advertisement (Fig. 7) stresses the positive aspect of the want to succeed, to obtain promotion, to earn more money. If the negative aspect were to be stressed, a man would be depicted as dejected, discouraged, a failure. The positive aspect is also aroused in the

Often a bridesmaid but never a bride

EDNA'S case was really a pathetic one. Like every woman, her primary ambition was to marry. Most of the girls of her set were married—or about to be. Yet not one possessed more grace or charm or loveliness than she. And as her birthday crept gradually toward that tragic thirty-mark, marriage seemed farther from her life than ever. She was often a bridesmaid but never a bride.

That's the saddest thing about matrimony: pleasant friends? Yes, to melt, rarely know when you have it. And even so, those friends won't tell you

Sometimes, of course, bad news comes from some deep-seated organic disorder that requires professional advice. But usually—and fortune told—Lintol's is only a little condition that yields to the regular use of Lintol's as a mouth wash and gargle. It is an interesting thing that this well-known preparation that has been in use for years for topical dressing to soothe these unusual eruptions as a breath disinfectant.

It hasn't got fermentation in the mouth and leaves the breath sweet, fresh and clean. The Lintol's is a salubrious agent when used but by itself removing the old one, not you on the safe and sure side.

You'll compare will supply you with Lintol's. He gets lost on it. It has dozens of different uses as a safe and sure. It has been proved as such for a half a century. Read the interesting little book. It comes with every bottle.

—Lintol's Phenol Compound, New York, U. S. A.

MAILED 10 LITRE

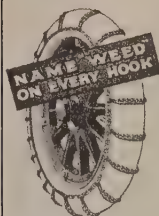
FIG. 5.—Emphasizing negative and obstacle aspects of a want.



WHO is held responsible? *The driver without* WEED CHAINS, of course!

"I always use WEED CHAINS on wet, skiddy streets and roads" says the experienced motorist, "because if there was an accident and Weed Chains were not on the tires of my car while the other car had them on its tires, I would be blamed whether I was at fault or not. *I don't care to take chances of being held responsible.*"

Put *genuine* WEED CHAINS on your tires at the first drop of rain or flake of snow. They serve to protect you against law suits, personal injury and car damage.



They are *genuine* WEED CHAINS only when the name WEED is stamped on the Cross Chain Hooks and Connecting Hooks of the side chains. Look for this mark which has stood for quality and safety for over 20 years.

AMERICAN CHAIN COMPANY, INC. 
 BRIDGEPORT, CONNECTICUT

In Canada: DOMINION CHAIN COMPANY, LIMITED, Niagara Falls, Ontario
 District Sales Offices: Boston Chicago New York Philadelphia Pittsburgh San Francisco

THE WORLD'S LARGEST MANUFACTURERS OF
 WELDED AND WELDLESS CHAINS FOR ALL PURPOSES

FIG. 6.—Emphasizing positive and negative aspects of a want.



"Another \$50 Raise!"

"Why, that's the third increase I've had in a year! It shows what special training will do for a man."

Every mail brings letters from some of the thousands of students of the International Correspondence Schools, telling of advancements won through spare-time study.

How much longer are you going to wait before taking the step that is bound to bring you more money? Isn't it better to start *now* than to wait for years and then realize what the delay has cost you?

One hour after supper each night spent with the I. C. S. in your own home will prepare you for the position you want. Without cost, without obligation, mark and mail this coupon. *Do it right now!*

INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS Box 2525-B, Scranton, Penna.

Without cost or obligation on my part, please tell me how I can qualify for the position or in the subject before which I have marked an X.

BUSINESS TRAINING COURSES

- | | |
|--|---|
| ☐ Business Management | ☐ Salesmanship |
| ☐ Industrial Management | ☐ Advertising |
| ☐ Personnel Organization | ☐ Better Letters |
| ☐ Traffic Management | ☐ Show Card Lettering |
| ☐ Business Law | ☐ Stenography and Typing |
| ☐ Banking and Banking Law | ☐ Business English |
| ☐ Accountancy (including C.P.A.) | ☐ Civil Service |
| ☐ Cost Accounting | ☐ Railway Mail Clerk |
| ☐ Bookkeeping | ☐ Common School Subjects |
| ☐ Private Secretary | ☐ High School Subjects |
| ☐ Spanish ☐ French | ☐ Illustrating |

TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL COURSES

- | | |
|---|--|
| ☐ Electrical Engineering | ☐ Architect |
| ☐ Electric Lighting | ☐ Blue Print Reading |
| ☐ Mechanical Engineer | ☐ Contractor and Builder |
| ☐ Mechanical Draftsman | ☐ Architectural Draftsman |
| ☐ Machine Shop Practice | ☐ Concrete Builder |
| ☐ Railroad Positions | ☐ Structural Engineer |
| ☐ Gas Engine Operating | ☐ Chemistry ☐ Pharmacy |
| ☐ Civil Engineer | ☐ Automobile Work |
| ☐ Surveying and Mapping | ☐ Airplane Engines |
| ☐ Metallurgy ☐ Mining | ☐ Agriculture and Poultry |
| ☐ Steam Engineering ☐ Radio | ☐ Mathematics |

Name..... 6-3 22

Street.....

Address.....

City..... State.....

Occupation.....

Persons residing in Canada should send this coupon to the International Correspondence Schools, Canadian, Limited, Montreal, Canada

Fig. 7.—Emphasizing positive aspect of a want.

Palo Alto Hardware advertisement (Fig. 8). Who can fail to want to go fishing after looking at it?

The Schrader advertisement (Fig. 9) is a fine example of where the obstacle aspect of a want is emphasized. The man in the cut looks puzzled and dissatisfied, and the copy outlines his conjectures as he tries to figure out what is wrong. What obstacle is it which he must overcome? It is not skidding, or driving



**A Bite—
A Splash—
A Whopper!**

He's hooked—
you'll land him if
you have the right
kind of tackle.

Don't wait until the last minute to get your fishing outfit in shape. Look it over NOW.

Season Opens Thursday, May 1

Come in and look over our tackle—you'll find everything you need.

Get Your Fishing License Here

Palo Alto Hardware Co.

THE WINCHESTER STORE

FIG. 8.—Emphasizing positive aspect of a want.

over ruts, or scraping the tires against the curb, or the like. Finally, he thinks of the chance of underinflation. The copy in small type makes clear why that is, indeed, his trouble. And the fitting solution of his difficulty is shown to be the constant use of a Schrader Tire Pressure Gage.

These five advertisements emphasize a want. The Listerine advertisement stresses the negative and then the obstacle aspect of the want; the Schrader, the obstacle aspect primarily, but the



**"I hear about long mileage
—why don't I get it?"**

"I do not skid my tires by applying the brakes too suddenly.

"I drive slowly over ruts and rough roads.

"I do not scrape the side walls of my tires against the curb.

"I have cuts promptly repaired.

"My wheels are in alignment.

"My tires fit their rims.

"I do not understand why I cannot get maximum mileage out of my tires.

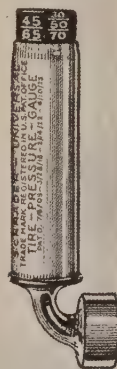
"I wonder if incorrect inflation can be the reason why my tires wear out too soon."

That's just the reason. His tires are seldom correctly inflated. That is why they wear out long before their time. Some day this man will awake to the importance of correct tire inflation evenly maintained. And he will attend to the job himself. He will own and use a Schrader Tire Pressure Gauge.

This device will tell him at a glance the exact air pressure in his tires at any time. He will find his favorite make of tire yielding more mileage. The Schrader Gauge is accurate and will last for years.

Buy your gauge today. On sale at motor accessory shops, garages, and hardware stores.

A. SCHRADER'S SON, INC., BROOKLYN, N. Y.
Chicago Toronto London



Special type for wire and disc wheels, and wheels with thick spokes or large brake drums.

Schrader
Makers of Pneumatic Valves Since 1844
Tire Valves · Tire Gauges

FIG. 9.—Emphasizing obstacle aspect of a want.

negative also by implication; the I. C. S. and the Hardware, the positive aspect; and the Weed Chain advertisement both the positive and negative aspects. A want always involves all three



The Growing Popularity of the Face Brick House

HOME, the most cherished dream of the American family, finds its truest expression when beauty and durability are combined with economy. That is why Face Brick is increasing in popularity year by year. Its wide range of color tones and textures satisfies the most divergent tastes. It is durable as the hills. The savings in repairs, painting, depreciation, fuel costs and insurance rates soon wipe out the slightly higher initial cost of the Face Brick house and make it the most economical home you can build. These matters are fully discussed in "The Story of Brick." For your copy, address American Face Brick Association, 1744 Peoples Life Building, Chicago, Illinois.

Booklets you ought to have:

"The Story of Brick," a most artistic, illustrated book with indispensable information for anyone thinking of building. So interesting that it is used as a reader in a number of schools. Sent free. "Invaluable to home-builders. Information well worth \$5.00," says one of hundreds of enthusiastic readers.

"Face Brick Bungalow and Small House Plans" embrace 90 designs of Face Brick bungalows and small houses. They are issued in four booklets, 3 to 4-room houses, 5-room houses, 6-room houses, and 7 to 8-room houses. The entire set for one dollar; any one of the books, 25 cents. Please send stamps or money order. "I would not part

with them for a hundred times their cost. They are simply invaluable to me."

"The Home of Beauty" contains 50 designs of Face Brick houses, mostly two stories, selected from 350 designs submitted by architects, in a nation-wide competition. Sent for 50 cents. "The Home of Beauty" is far ahead of any book of house plans I have ever seen."

"The Home Fires" is a new book containing 20 attractive original fireplace designs, 25 pictures of fireplaces designed by well-known architects, and an article on proper fireplace construction. Sent for 25 cents. "We are truly delighted with this piece of literature."

FIG. 10.—Emphasizing association between want and commodity. Illustrates co-operative advertising.

aspects, but whether one or two or all three aspects are in mind at any time depends upon just how the individual happens to think of the matter at the moment.

2. Emphasis upon Associating Want and Commodity.—Whenever a company's commodity is not well associated, in the minds of prospective buyers, with their wants, the commodity must be played up. Of course, such advertising helps every company that is selling that commodity. The best way to handle the situation is for all competitors to join in a cooperative campaign. This is what the brick people have done and the advertisement in Fig. 10 emphasizes brick, but no particular trade name. Such advertising causes all those readers who are planning to build homes to think of using brick, not wood, concrete, stucco, or stone. And so it helps all brick merchants.

There has been a remarkable development since the war of trade associations carrying on *cooperative advertising* campaigns. There is no question that there will be far more because it is the most equitable and efficient way of handling the problem of associating want with commodity.

The Cast Iron Pipe advertisement (Fig. 11) is another example of cooperative advertising. But it stresses the want for water and only incidentally refers to the commodity. In the follow-up provision is made for stressing the commodity.

3. Emphasis upon Associating Commodity and Trade Name. This is the most common problem in both advertising and selling, for in the great majority of sales the prospect knows what commodity he wants; and the seller is only concerned in getting him to buy the seller's own brand of goods, or in the seller's own store.

A Fownes Brothers & Co. advertisement is headed: "Why, 'a pair of Fownes' means 'a pair of gloves.'" The first few lines of the copy follow:

When you say—

"I want a pair of Fownes," to any American glove merchant, he is not likely to answer:

"Excuse me, what was it you wanted?"

He knows that you want gloves—good gloves—and he will show you Fownes if he has them, or explain the merits of another brand.

And the slogan at the bottom of the advertisement is: "It's a Fownes—that's all you need to know about a glove." Here the whole emphasis is upon associating gloves with Fownes, of attempting to get the reader to say "Fownes" instead of "gloves" when he goes into the haberdashery.

if you live in a small town

you get a great deal out of life that is denied the city dweller. On the other hand, *all* city folk enjoy a blessing which most inhabitants of small towns miss.

That is *water*—pure and abundant. Many towns with electric light and the best of paving still struggle along with wells and pumps, or with a central water supply that trickles into failure just when it is needed most.

The only reasons are inertia and lack of information.

Any town of 500 or more—and some with less—can have a thoroughly up-to-date water supply and pay for it to a considerable extent out of savings in the cost of fire insurance.

Aside from the luxury of clean water and plenty of it, it is the one defense against fire. If your water comes from a well, if it comes from a pumping plant too small for the demand, or if the mains are inadequate, you are just as much in peril as a man who smokes in a gasoline refinery. Incidentally, the brakes are set on the growth of your town.

We have prepared a book, "Planning a Water-works System," which covers the problem of water for the small town. A copy awaits the request of any interested person.

THE CAST IRON PIPE PUBLICITY BUREAU
122 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago

CAST IRON PIPE



FIG. 11.—Emphasizing want and associating it with commodity. Illustrates cooperative advertising.

There are two conceptions of memory that affect advertising strategy. In one case the mind is viewed as like any container; to insure memory it is only necessary to put the idea in the mind. In the second case memory is viewed as the result of associating one idea with another. Nothing is to be gained by putting ideas into mind unless they are connected with other ideas to form a useful whole.

Although the General Motors advertisement (Fig. 3) has several features which seem to bring it into this latter class, it is essentially only a display of trade names: there is no associating of commodities with trade names, for the commodities are not even mentioned.

It may, indeed, be more properly classified as *institutional advertising*. The object in such advertising is not to sell a particular product but rather a whole line of products. The immediate objective is to play up the firm that sells the line. In this case emphasis is upon the units the General Motors have to sell. Institutional advertising is of greatest assistance to selling when all the units have a common trade name. When this is not the case the name of the company must be taught the public in addition to the names of each of the products. It is questionable whether this is worth while in some cases. Institutional advertising is of value also when stocks or bonds are to be put upon the market, or when for some cause other than that concerning the merit of the goods the company has suffered a loss of reputation, or when jobbers and dealers are to be influenced.

The Lucky Strike advertisement (Fig. 12) illustrates *reminder advertising* in which the trade-marked commodity is kept before the public, and at least one reason is supplied as to why it should be bought.



FIG. 12.—Emphasizing association between commodity and trade-name. Illustrates reminder advertising.

But in many advertising campaigns emphasis is placed altogether too much upon the trade name. This is even more strikingly seen in the work of many

salesmen. Until the prospect is aware of his want and the commodity to be used in satisfying it, he is not interested and can hardly be made to be interested in any seller's trade name. On the other hand, once he wants the commodity he is naturally interested in the kinds of commodities, and information about them is retained with little effort.

4. Emphasis upon Making Purchase and Use Easy.—Many a sale is lost because it is not known where the article can be bought or it is too much trouble to go to the only store that carries it. The Ridgway Tea advertisement (Fig. 13) suggests phoning—a very easy way of securing the commodity. A great variety of advertisements could be grouped here, all making clear how and where to buy.

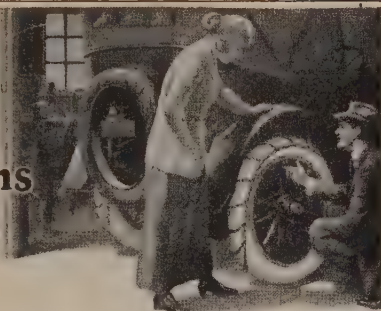
The Weed Chain advertisement (Fig. 14) makes clear how to use the product. In doing so it eliminates one of the causes of procrastination, for no one likes to buy something he does not know how to use and he dreads the ridicule that may arise if he buys and then cannot use the article.

Developing a buying habit in the maximum number of consumers means widespread distribution. Coupled with it goes the necessity of informing consumers where the goods

FIG. 13.—Emphasizing ease of buying. Illustrates association of occasion for buying with trade-name.

can be obtained. The writer has moved to several different cities

Practice putting on- WEED Tire Chains in the Garage



It only takes a few moments to attach them when you know how. No jack required. Study the directions, illustrated on the right.

Women drivers are very numerous nowadays. They are driving out into the country over all sorts of roads—they surely need protection against the dangerous skid. How many of them know how to put on Weed Chains? Have you ever instructed your wife, your sister or your daughter?

The directions for attaching Weed Chains are simple yet most important.

Avoid annoyances on the road — learn how easy it is to put them on correctly—practice in the garage and give the women instruction. It will amply repay you in security, satisfaction and comfort.

AMERICAN CHAIN COMPANY, INC.

BRIDGEPORT  CONNECTICUT

In Canada: Dominion Chain Company, Limited, Niagara Falls, Ont.
DISTRICT SALES OFFICES:

Boston, Chicago, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, Ore., San Francisco
The Complete Chain Line—All Types, All Sizes, All Finishes
—From Plumbers' Safety Chain to Ships' Anchor Chain

THE LARGEST MANUFACTURERS OF CHAIN IN THE WORLD



Observe these three fundamentals



Lay chains over wheel with hooks toward rear, and tuck the slack under front part of wheel.



Start car forward just enough to run over slack ends.



Hook chains as tightly as possible by hand.

Do Not Anchor

FIG. 14.—Emphasizing ease of use.

and has been much impressed with how difficult it is to find many nationally advertised goods until they are stumbled upon. There is no way of finding out who sells them except by inquiring, and competitors usually "don't know." And it is also very surprising to what an extent local stores refrain from giving their address. Apparently, after contributing to campaigns to get people to come to their city, they are content to have them buy at any place. Some hotels will be advertised to tourists for miles ahead and then there is no name on the building to identify it when the traveler gets there.

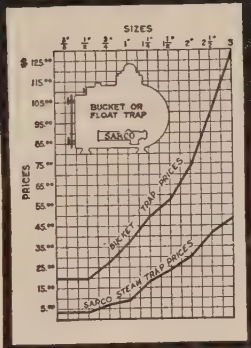
Much attention can be given by some sellers to the problem of making it easy to order. Practically no book publisher gives his address beyond "New York" or "Chicago," and many people will not write with no more definite address than that.

Part of this problem of making purchasing easy is that of courteous and efficient service in the store, delivery of goods, answering inquiries, etc. And this applies not only to adult customers but also to children. A check up in most any community will show that considerable of the buying is determined by the children. They naturally avoid stores where they are kept waiting until all adults have been served.

5. Emphasis upon Adequacy and Pleasant Feelings.—Everyone acts with a minimum of reasons and feeling when only one course of procedure is open. But when confronted with two or more possible courses, then deliberation appears. So, whenever an old customer is confronted with a substitution, he at that moment needs reasons to defend his accustomed purchase. If they do not immediately flash into mind, he will probably succumb to the salesman's pleas. And if the customer does not feel pleasantly toward the old commodity he will be ready to consider something else that may give him such feeling. To maintain one's trade, it is then essential to have associated with the trade name reasons as to its adequacy and pleasant feelings.

The advertisements of the Sarco Company (Fig. 15) and the Foamite-Childs Corporation (Fig. 16) illustrate emphasis upon the adequacy of the product. The Edge Moor Boiler advertisement (Fig. 17) is an example of what is often spoken of as "borrowed prestige." The advertised boilers are introduced through

See What You Save on Steam trap **SARCO**



This diagram shows at a glance the big difference between the size and the price of the clumsy, cumbersome bucket trap and a simple, compact, Steam Trap SARCO.

The difference in size and the difference in price are, as a matter of fact, cause and effect. For it is the larger size of the bucket trap—with its superfluous parts, such as floats, levers, valves, water gauges, bowls, toggles and packing—that you have to pay the larger price for. It is the compactness and simplicity of Steam Trap SARCO that makes it possible for you to buy it for $\frac{1}{3}$ the price of the bucket trap.

Rated size for size, SARCO has the same capacity as the big float trap. Its efficiency is greater. It discharges condensate as rapidly as it collects, consequently doesn't need to be large. It closes promptly and prevents all loss of live steam. Its compactness permits it to be installed in many places where there would not be room for a cumbersome bucket trap.

WHY, therefore, pay the LARGER PRICE for a bucket trap when it gets you neither increased capacity nor increased efficiency?

Use Steam Trap SARCO and save 2-3 of your Steam Trap costs. We'll send it on thirty days' free trial and let it convince you in your own plant, away from the influence of salesmen, that the SARCO is all we claim, and more. Write for Booklet H-6.

SARCO CO., INC.
11 Barclay St., New York City

Boston
Buffalo

Chicago
Cleveland

Detroit

Pascoq Bros., Montreal.

Philadelphia

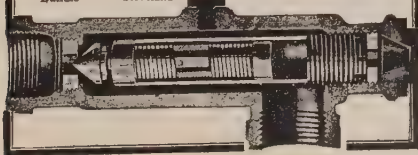


FIG. 15.—Emphasizing adequacy of the trade-named commodity.

Why big industries install *Foamite* Protection

Such great companies as Procter & Gamble, U. S. Steel Corporation, and the Firestone Tire & Rubber Company, protect their plants with *Foamite* devices and systems because they refuse to gamble with fire. They want positive assurance that their production will not suffer through fire disaster; and *Foamite Protection* gives them that assurance.

Leaders in every industry today find that *Fire-foam*, generated by *Foamite* equipment, is vastly more effective than any other extinguishing means known. It controls and extinguishes any ordinary or extra-hazardous fire at the start—checks it—stifles it—smothers it—in a few seconds.

Even highly inflammables like oil, gasoline, and paint quickly succumb to *Firefoam*; while ordinary fires haven't the slightest chance against it.

Why the remarkable gas bubbles of *Firefoam* will smother any fire

Firefoam is a mass of tough, clinging gas bubbles produced by the combination of *Firefoam* liquid and other solutions. Thrown out from *Foamite* apparatus, this remarkable substance will blanket any burning surface—float on any liquid—and shut out oxygen so that fire can't burn.

After the fire is smothered, you brush away the dry foam and find it has done less damage than water would do!

The fire protection engineers who perfected *Foamite* Protection can now prescribe it in a form to safeguard any plant, large or small. A *Foamite*-Childs man can tell you whether your risks call for *Foamite* hand extinguishers, or *Foamite* portable engines, or a *Foamite* system. And he can install



It should have been checked at the start—and the firemen couldn't be there then. Every plant needs scientific, first-aid protection.

American Photo Service

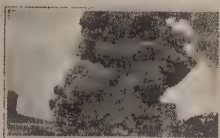
and maintain the equipment with an exact knowledge that guarantees instant readiness for any emergency.

The *Foamite*-Childs Corporation has developed fire protection devices and systems for 27 years. Now its engineers offer the *Foamite* method as the last word in industrial protection. They also offer three other extinguishing methods, each adequate in a definite field—*Fire-Gun* for electrical fires and automotive equipment; *Childs* Soda-and-acid extinguishers and engines, and the *Allweather* non-freezing extinguisher for ordinary fires.

Our new booklet, "The Essentials of Self-Protection Against Fire," points out just how to have real security against your fire risks. Reading this booklet may save you from a serious setback. Send for a free copy today.

1000 gallons of blazing oil extinguished by *Firefoam* in 3 minutes!

Photos by Fire & Water Engineering



At the recent Convention of Fire Chiefs, in Richmond, Va., this remarkable test was made—1000 gals. of mixed oil and gasoline in an open pit were ignited and allowed to burn for 3 minutes. Then



A stream of *Firefoam* was thrown onto the raging flames from *Foamite* apparatus, and in less than 3 minutes the fire was entirely out—literally smothered under a clinging, floating mass of tough, gas-inflated bubbles.



Fire Chiefs inspecting the foam-covered oil after the fire. *Foamite* Protection is now available for industrial fire risks of all kinds, in *Foamite* extinguishers, engines, and stationary systems.

Foamite-Childs Corporation

Fire Protection Engineers and Manufacturers

626 Turner Street, Utica, N. Y.

Foamite-Childs of Canada, Ltd., Toronto, Ont.

Sales and Engineering Representatives in the leading cities of all countries

FIG. 16.—Emphasizing adequacy of the trade-named commodity.




The model plant of the Hershey Chocolate Co. at Hershey, Pa., showing new power plant at right and (below) four 750 H. P. Edge Moor Boilers in service there. Eight Edge Moor Boilers totaling approximately 5,000 H. P. also are installed in the company's sugar central at Bainoa, near Havana, Cuba.

EDGE MOOR
Water Tube **BOILERS**

FOR INCREASED FUEL ECONOMY

DURING the past ten years the Hershey Chocolate Company has installed twenty Edge Moor Boilers, totaling more than 12,000 B.H.P., in its model plant at Hershey, Pa., and its sugar central at Bainoa, Cuba.

These boilers represent five separate orders—the first placed in 1913, the latest in 1923. The performance of the first Edge Moor Boilers at Hershey resulted in their selection for the new power plant built in 1920, and for the Cuban mill.

In the confectionery industry, as in a score of others, Edge Moor users are among the representative leaders. The Edge Moor catalogue details the advantages of this boiler that have won it preference among discerning purchasers. We shall be glad to send you a copy.

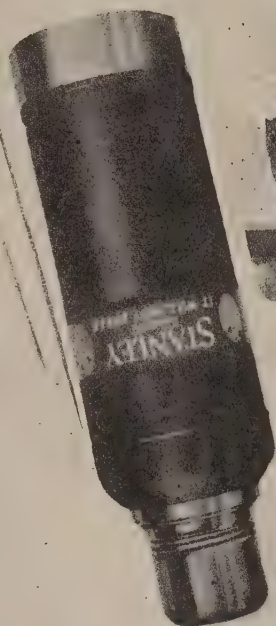
EDGE MOOR IRON COMPANY
Established 1868
EDGE MOOR, DELAWARE

New York
Chicago
St. Paul

Boston
Pittsburgh
Charlotte



FIG. 17.—Emphasizing adequacy of the trade-named commodity. Illustrates "borrowed prestige."



*"It will
not break"*



The all steel Stanley vacuum bottle —*will not break*

NO jolt or jar, no fall or mishap can rob you of the piping-hot coffee or icy cold drink when carried in the all-steel Stanley Vacuum Bottle. *It will not break.*

The Stanley is made entirely of steel. There is no glass in it. It does away with the need for "refills." It is lined with blue Amalite,—a mineral coating fused into the steel itself which will neither rust nor tarnish.

Stanley Bottles come in pint, quart and two-quart sizes. They are priced at \$7.50, \$10.00 and \$15.00 respectively. The Stanley Lunch Kit is equipped with pint size bottle. The new Stanley Food Jar in one and two-quart sizes is ideal for use in home or outdoors for keeping solid food hot or cold for hours at a time.

Stanley Hot Water Bottles, though without the vacuum feature, have the same unbreakable qualities.

If your dealer does not carry these Stanley products, send us his name and address. Stanley Insulating Company, 200 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Factory: Great Barrington, Mass.

STANLEY

VACUUM BOTTLE
FERROSTAT



Keeps liquids piping hot or icy cold

FIG. 18.—Emphasizing adequacy of the trade-named commodity.

the established interest in Hershey's chocolate. But a real reason is given here as to the value of the boilers, namely, the Hershey Company has repeatedly ordered more of them. Obviously, they would not do so if the boilers were not satisfactory.

The "big idea" in the Stanley Vacuum Bottle advertisement (Fig. 18) is "will not break." This is a reason for buying that

A cigarette is known by
the smokers it *keeps*

"Nothing else
will do"

FATIMA
CIGARETTES

TWENTY for 25¢

but taste the difference

LIGGETT & MYERS TOBACCO CO.

FIG. 19.—Emphasizing pleasant feeling. Illustrates "atmosphere."

company's product instead of the ordinary vacuum bottle made of glass. In the second paragraph of the copy, supporting statements are made as to why it will not break.

The advertising of Community Silver, Holeproof Hosiery, Palmolive soap and Karpen Furniture affords good illustrations of the method of making the whole advertisement so attractive that it is impossible not to like the product, although, actually,

the pleasant feeling may result not from the product but from one or more irrelevant items in the advertisement. Such advertisements are spoken of as having "atmosphere." A good example of atmosphere effect is shown in the newspaper advertisement of Fatima cigarettes (Fig. 19).

For years the advertising of Ivory soap emphasized the various occasions around the home when something had to be cleaned, and showed how Ivory was the soap to be used. In addition, this campaign stocked the minds of readers with reasons why Ivory was the best soap. The advertising of Palmolive soap has been very different. It has associated with the soap pleasant feelings, aroused by looking at beautiful women, children, and babies. Recently much of the advertising of Ivory soap has been directed at ridiculing the idea that soap can make women more beautiful. The relative value of these three campaigns remains to be seen.

6. Emphasizing the Whole Formula.—Every year, old customers die and boys and girls become men and women and start buying. In a few years a commodity will disappear from the market if it is not energetically advertised and sold. It will disappear, if for no other reason, because those who know it have passed on.

In any selling campaign, consequently, considerable attention must be given to the forming of a buying habit in new prospects. This requires that all the elements constituting such a habit must be associated together in the new prospect's mind. Reminder advertising has its place, but unless it is supplemented by complete presentations of the product and how it satisfies wants the new prospect will not be sold. Or if he is "sold" he will be easily influenced to try substitutes.

The advertiser has here exactly the same problem that the teacher has in the school. He must form certain definite associations and must drill the learner until the lesson is well learned. Too many advertisers grow tired of their own copy and spend much time and money trying to find new stunts, overlooking the fact that what is monotonous to them is new to thousands of readers.

7. Emphasis upon Reminding Old Customers.—The aim here is to remind people of their wants before those wants are realized, before those individuals have had time to go somewhere else.

For years the words "Royal Baking Powder" appeared on every riser on the staircases to the elevated railway stations in New York City. One could hardly escape repeating the name several times as he climbed the steps. Such repetition of a trade name has value in preventing one from forgetting the name and in reminding one to buy if the product is wanted. But such advertising does not refresh the mind with the reasons and feelings so necessary to defend the old habit against substitutions. If they are not revived from time to time, they will most likely be forgotten.

There are all manner of devices that can be used to stimulate the habit. In the old days in San Francisco after the sidewalk had been cleaned in the early morning the saloon-keeper threw a mugful of beer on the sidewalk so that the smell would stimulate desire of the passerby. One druggist sprinkles a little perfume in the telephone booths of his store. On the wall a sign tells the name of the perfume. It is said that "almost invariably lady patrons show an interest in this perfume." The same principle is illustrated by the common custom of placing umbrellas at the door on a rainy day. And displays in the window and store serve the same purpose.

Many buying habits can hardly be stimulated sufficiently through advertising unless the prospect is also stimulated by some additional experience at the same time. For example, the average man will not buy an electric fan on a cool day; he must suffer from the heat before he will buy, and then only if he happens to think of a fan. Consequently one company arranges to have its advertisements released directly following a hot day and when it seems probable that the next day will also be hot.

The best time for any reminder to appear is just before the prospect will naturally think of buying. So a card near the bottom of a can of coffee reminding the housekeeper to order another can is effective, for it suggests the order before she has come to think about the matter, thus heading off the ideas that might come to mind about other brands.

Another type of reminder which everyone uses but which is seldom employed by advertisers is that of preparing a list of things to buy for a certain occasion. Upon request, many have

outlined to their friends what to take on an automobile trip. Yet when that question was systematically asked of every salesman in five auto accessory departments in one large city only one gave anything like a satisfactory answer. And he was only an errand boy. But on being interrogated he replied that he was going to drive out West in his flivver the following summer.



FIG. 20.—Emphasizing satisfaction—positive aspect of the want. A good reminder advertisement.

Some day groups of advertisers are going to band together and collectively tell prospects what to buy when they want to do this or that. A beginning along this line is to be seen in the practice of some concerns selling dress-goods who recommend a certain soap to be used for washing. And linoleum is shown in a kitchen which has a kitchen cabinet in it, and *vice versa*. Each of these is helped by the other.

The best stimulus of all is to play up the want and the satisfaction obtained through use of the commodity. "Good to the last

drop" is a wonderful slogan in this respect, especially when satisfaction of drinking coffee is depicted as in Fig 20. But why do advertisers with such possibilities spend money displaying girls that distract one from the commodity and often react unfavorably upon women readers (see

Fig. 21)? Certain advertisements such as the first one of these two Maxwell House Coffee advertisements and those of Rogers Peet (Fig. 22), and of the Todd Protectograph Fig. 23) might be classified as primarily



Good to the last drop

As a matter of fact, the *first* drop tells you why Maxwell House is specified whenever one is particularly anxious to have the occasion just right.

**MAXWELL
HOUSE
COFFEE**



SOLILOQUIZING

"Such a satisfactory hour!"
 "Stepped into one of their 'four corners' and completed my Winter wardrobe without delay or extravagance."
 "Such an abundance of things to wear."
 "Such a big variety."
 "Such prompt service."
 "A pleasant place, where outfitting's really a pleasure."

ROGERS PEET COMPANY
 Broadway at 13th St. "Four Convenient Corners" Broadway at 34th St.
 Broadway at Warren Fifth Ave. at 41st St.

FIG. 21.—"Making the reader want coffee" sacrificed in order to "get attention."

FIG. 22.—Emphasizing satisfaction—positive aspect of the want. A good reminder advertisement.

representing the satisfaction that results from using the commodity. But such advertisements, the writer believes, can be better classified under the heading of emphasizing the positive aspect of the want. Whenever a reader sees someone depicted

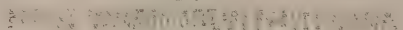
*I feel safe
signing the
checks since
we adopted
TODD
Protection*



PROTOD-Greenbac

Forgery Proof Checks

that resist tampering, alteration, or "counterfeiting", and the amount "shredded" with the Protectograph like this:



A \$10,000 insurance policy with each Protectograph as a guarantee.
That is Todd complete check protection

Protod-Greenbac. Cl
a different color
rip "feel" of new money

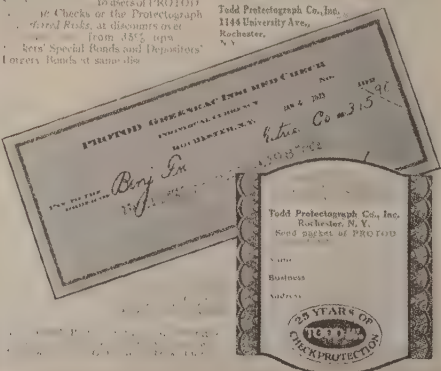
—green on the back, varied de-
signations for the face; wit

Standard Forgery Bonds at Discounts of 35% Upwards

The General Indemnity Corpora

on sold by other
branches of PROUD
ie Checks or the Protectograph
dared Risk, at discounts over
from 35% up
kers' Special Bonds and Depositors'
Forgery Bonds at same disc

Todd Protectograph Co., Inc.
1144 University Ave.,
Rochester,
N.Y.



Todd Protectograph Co., Inc.
Rochester, N. Y.
Send packet of PROTOD

Name
Business
Address

25 YEARS OF
PROUD
PROTECTION

FIG. 23.—Emphasizing satisfaction—positive aspect of the want. Lower half of the advertisement too crowded to give good effect.

as enjoying satisfaction he is usually made to feel a want to enjoy the same satisfaction. Although satisfaction is pictured the reader feels a want, not satisfaction.

ADVERTISEMENTS THAT DO NOT FIT THE FORMULA

The *Brooklyn Union* advertisement (Fig. 24) does not fit our buying formula. It is a typical advertisement of some advertis-

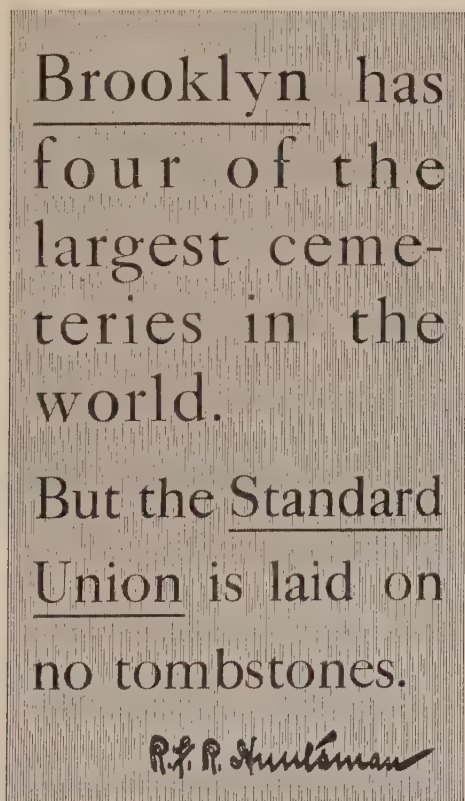


FIG. 24.—Does not conform to the buying formula. Everything sacrificed to get attention.

ing agencies and of many newspapers when selling their *own* service; and it is typical of the sort of advertising a college boy or a small merchant likes to run. The supreme effort is to get attention at any cost. Apparently, no thought is given as to

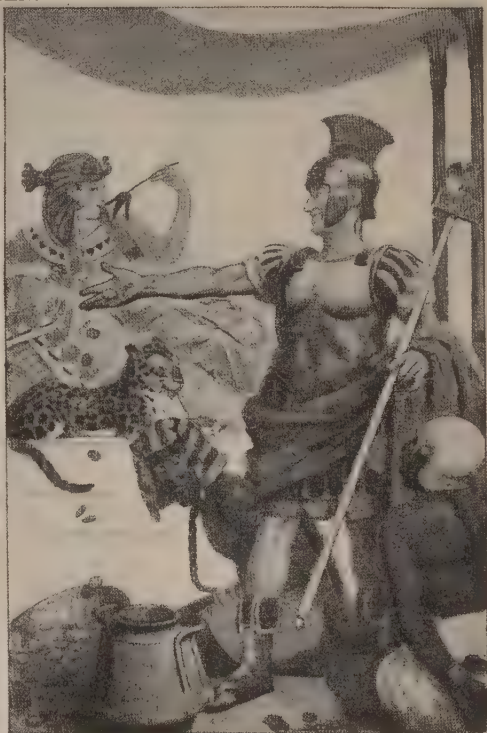
No. 2—Julius Caesar

Julius Caesar Makes Good

JULIUS CAESAR had his faults; but he certainly was no coward. Profligate that he was, he feared no living man or set of men. On one of his Syrian war journeys, it is told, he was captured by Egyptian pirates who coolly informed him he would remain their prisoner until his friends produced a million dollars. "A million dollars!" he exclaimed, "why, I owe personally more than that. Let me go or I'll come back some fine day and crucify the whole bunch." But the pirates held him, nevertheless, until Rome notified them that the million was ready for Caesar's return.

But once back at his marble desk, the General refused to ship the money. "Hold it until I die, and then pay my debts. I'll go back and fix up this other thing." So he went once more to Syria, as he had promised, crucified the necessary pirates, and fell in love with Cleopatra. The ransom

fund was kept for his creditors after death. Nowadays one does not have to argue with pirates to accumulate a stated sum as a guarantee for creditors. He can get an insurance company, for a stipend a year, to make this guarantee for him. Many business men find life insurance a very great convenience in matters of this sort.



THE PRUDENTIAL INSURANCE COMPANY OF AMERICA

EDWARD D. DUFFIELD
President



HOME OFFICE: NEWARK
New Jersey

IF EVERY WIFE KNEW WHAT EVERY WIDOW KNOWS—EVERY HUSBAND WOULD BE INSURED

FIG. 25.—Does not conform to the buying formula. Almost everything sacrificed to secure interest.

what impression should be, or will be, permanently established in the minds of the readers as a result of the advertising.

The Julius Caesar appeal of the Prudential Insurance Company (Fig. 25) is not only poor—it is bad. The posing of the braggart Roman before the smirking queen makes even the tiger sneer. The copy arouses mixed sentiments, among which contempt is strongly present in most readers. These unfavorable sentiments aroused by both cut and copy are certain to be directed not only toward Caesar but toward those who hold him up for imitation. The effect here is just the reverse of good "atmospheric" advertising. The feeling aroused becomes associated with the product and the company. It is amazing when there is so much of interest to everyone in life insurance that a great company feels it must spend all but one inch of space in a desperate effort to get interest, and to get it in such a way!

The Ditto advertisement in Fig. 26 is an illustration of one written from the seller's point of view and not the buyer's. It begins with the trade name

Ditto

Control is Meddle-Proof

DITTO insures *positive* production control. It provides every required form or memorandum needed throughout the organization and entirely eliminates the possibility of any person altering, substituting, or marring any word or figure. The distinctive appearance of DITTO copies can't be counterfeited. The DITTO original—from which every needed form is made—is a guarantee of accuracy and honesty.

Every DITTO copy is a facsimile of the entire original, or any desired part of it. Signed or initialed authorizations, or instructions are reproduced intact. And there's no chance of a "6," for example, becoming "0" or "9" as may happen when manual copying or re-writing is employed in preparing the various forms.

From a single writing—made with pen, pencil, type-writer, or billing machine—or a drawing, chart or graph, DITTO provides, within a few moments, from 15 or 25 up to 100 distinct, durable copies. These copies may be made upon practically any paper, or even cardboard, of uniform or varying sizes or colors. Small tags, slips, and envelopes are copied with the same ease as forms up to 18 x 32 inches.

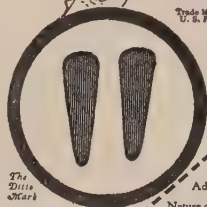
There's no type to set, no stencil to cut, no carbon paper to pack. Up to five colors can be used. Any bright boy or girl, with a little practice, can operate DITTO, saving considerably in payroll as well as material costs. No matter what you make, or how large or small your plant may be, you need the economical, accurate service of DITTO. Doubtless, our systems and statistical department can show you how firms of the same type as your own are saving with DITTO. Use the coupon—pin it to your letter-head—right now.



DITTO, Incorporated, 9th Floor, 530 South Dearborn Street, CHICAGO

For Example: The hazard of leaks in materials and stores is eliminated by using DITTO copies for purchase requests, bids, quotations, receipts, and similar data involving the strictest attention to accuracy and checkage. And for posting stock ledger sheets and withdrawals, DITTO cares for every step, by providing convenient, error-proof, unit posting slips which are taken direct from the order itself. Manufacturing, planning, dispatching, engineering, assembly and shipping departments all have equally important work for DITTO.

Trade Mark Reg.
U. S. Pat. Off.



The
Ditto
Mark

IM-4-23

Ditto, Inc.
9th Floor, 530
S. Dearborn St.,
Chicago, Ill.

Give us full facts regarding
Ditto. Send the Ditto Book.

Name

Firm Name

Address

Nature of Business

FIG. 26.—Does not conform to the buying formula. Seller's point of view, not buyer's, dominant.

and recites the uses of the product. Recently, fifty young men and women were asked, "What is Ditto?" Though they were given three guesses apiece, only four of them mentioned "copying machine." But all knew "multigraph" and "mimeograph." When they were told what "Ditto" really is, most of them declared they had never heard of it! Had Ditto been advertised for some time from the buyer's point of view, giving wants first and the machine as a solution, this surprising ignorance would not exist. As it is, a reader, not knowing what Ditto is, ignores all such headings as, "Ditto control is meddle-proof." What business is it of his?

GENERAL SUMMARY

Advertisements may be constructed so as to bring into the reader's mind all the thoughts and feelings that are necessary to lead him to buy. Or they may be constructed so as to bring to mind only certain of all these thoughts and feelings. In this case they are not complete sales presentations.

An advertisement that is not a complete sales presentation is entirely justifiable providing that the elements that are omitted from the advertisement are already in the minds of the prospective buyers.

An advertisement that is not a complete sales presentation may also be justifiable, even when it does not meet the above specification, if it is designed to put into the minds of the prospective buyers just one idea, leaving to other advertisements in the campaign the function of establishing the remaining ideas and feelings that are necessary to lead the readers to buy.

With the buying formula in mind, it will be most natural to put the emphasis where it belongs, depending upon the particular selling problem that is to be solved. And at the same time the effect of the entire advertisement will be to develop in the minds of every reader a complete buying habit.

But when such a buying formula is not in mind it is very easy to put the emphasis upon items in such a way that little or no good results. Thus the advertiser who concocted the Maxwell House Coffee advertisement (Fig. 21) was undoubtedly concerned with getting attention for his little advertisement. He got it. But did the advertisement sell his coffee?

When the buying formula is followed there is no need whatever to worry about "attention," "interest," "conviction," "desire," "action," or "memory." *If a want is played up, attention, interest, and desire are simultaneously aroused; and when the solution is properly presented conviction, action, and memory are similarly taken care of.*

Reduced to the simplest terms, the main concern is with *satisfying wants*. But in doing so the elements must be presented in their proper sequence or the desired end is not likely to be obtained.

This applies to personal selling as well as advertising. The bugaboo of preapproach, approach, and all the rest can be forgotten. If a salesman knows what a prospect wants and knows his commodity will satisfy that want he has got to tell his story very badly in order to fail to interest his prospect.

Questions

1. Consider each of the last twenty-five advertisements in the last issue of *The Saturday Evening Post*, counting backwards from the outside back cover, and determine what element, or elements, of the buying formula are emphasized. In determining what is emphasized note approximately the amount of space given to the various elements of the formula in each advertisement, also what you believe the advertiser intended to stress.

2. Which of these twenty-five advertisements would you classify as complete sales presentations?

3. Which of the advertisements, if any, make you feel like buying the product advertised? Explain why.

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CHAPTER VI

A CUSTOMER, NOT A SALE, THE OBJECTIVE OF SELLING

"This is what advertising is for, never forget—to make a customer, through the merit of the merchandise advertised, not merely to make a sale through the merit of the advertisement. Advertising sells the goods once. The goods must sell the goods thereafter."¹ So writes Thomas Russell, the dean of advertising men in Great Britain.

In well-nigh every recent book on advertising this point has been emphasized. The aim of advertising is not merely to make a sale, but to make a customer.

A customer is one who has a *habit* of buying certain things in a certain place. A few days ago the conversation of two women was overheard. One was saying she must get some cretonne to cover her porch furniture. The other woman instantly replied, "You can get that in the Emporium." There's a customer, a real one! When she thinks of buying cretonne, she thinks "Emporium." And if she had to buy cretonne, she would go to the Emporium to get it.

Barker Bros., of Los Angeles, is well known as an institution that "realizes that customers with 'the habit of coming to the store' are worth much more than the ability of a salesman to sell big orders by the high-pressure method." Recently one of their salesmen sold within a few dollars of \$50,000 of house furnishings in one month. "During that particular month not one of his customers was new. His entire business was done with people to whom he had previously sold goods."

Manly M. Gillam wrote years ago:

In any large city, the floating bargain hunters are comparatively few. By far the largest part of the business of any store is from the regular

¹ RUSSELL, T., "Commercial Advertising," p. 122, 1920.

patrons of that store. It is this devotion of patrons that constitutes the goodwill of a store. The advertising of a store is read by the followers of, the believers in, that store. In New York, for instance, the mass of Altman followers wouldn't know what Macy or Hearn were offering any more than the thousands of steady patrons of Marshall Field & Co. in Chicago would know of the advertised things at The Fair or at Siegel Cooper Co.'s.

In some quarters there is not this general recognition that the objective is to make a customer. It is true there is today a great deal of talk about *service* and *consumer goodwill* and the like. But many have not gone sufficiently far in their thinking to see that service is not the end, but only the means to the end of establishing a habit of trading regularly at the store. Anderson¹ recognizes this view when he writes:

There are certain axioms which are applicable to both productive and selling processes. I may briefly outline them in this way: It costs less to sell a standard commodity than one which is not standard; it costs less to sell few varieties than many; it costs less to sell large quantities than small quantities; it costs less to sell a commodity that has a continuous and established demand than one which has a seasonal demand or is new to the market; it costs more to sell a commodity for which consumer demand has not been definitely established than one for which consumer demand has already been created.

The last two of these axioms are true because it costs money and effort to form a habit of buying. Once the habit is established the buyer tends to continue buying. But in the minds of many sellers there is little thought of this, hardly more than the thought of putting over the immediate sale, and no worrying about tomorrow until tomorrow comes.

There are few business concerns which do not depend for their success upon repeat orders. Even with commodities which are bought only once in a life time, the sales today depend upon the sales of yesteryear. The vogue of the Steinway piano is a reflection of its past quality and the opinions of those who own and use it. Take away this heritage from past sales and the Steinway would be no better in the eyes of the buying public than the latest piano put on the market.

This heritage—the goodwill of the public—is a definite way of thinking that exists in the minds of thousands of people. When a piano is mentioned, they think "Steinway." They

¹ ANDERSON, SYDNEY, "Limits to What Cooperation Will Do," *The Nation's Business*, February, 1924.

think, moreover, "It is the best piano." "The best musicians prefer it." "When I buy a piano I'll get a Steinway," etc. If the advertising of this piano and the sales procedure of those who sell it tend to increase this heritage, the future sales are made easier. On the other hand, if the aim is only to sell as many as possible today, it is easy to overlook many little things that would help in future sales.

What it is sought to present in this book is a general point of view in selling and advertising which will do two things: first, guide one in making a single sale in an efficient manner; and, second, guide one not only in making a single sale but in planning a long campaign so as to secure a maximum of repeat orders.

To make the point clear it is necessary to consider next what is meant by a psychologist when he uses the term *habit*.

THE RÔLE OF HABIT IN SELLING

One of the leading lawyers of the country wrote years ago for *Printers' Ink* as follows:

The impelling cause of most of the things we do is habit, and it is well for us that this is so. A distinguished psychologist has said that an attempt to make a rational choice every time anything has to be done results in indecision and worry and doing nothing at all, and is conducive to nervous prostration and brain fag.

Consider for a minute the ordinary day of the average man. He gets up at an appointed hour, bathes, shaves, dresses, breakfasts, catches a train or car, and gets to his office. These things are done in a certain order, a certain way, all the result of habit. Watch yourself tomorrow morning and see if this is not so, and then try the experiment of changing the habitual order of doing things, or manner of doing them, and see what happens. If you shave before you bathe, try reversing the process, or if you habitually put your right arm in your coat sleeve first, try putting the left arm in and see if you can do it, or if you are pertinacious, see how long it takes to change the habit, and thereafter always put your left arm in the sleeve first. I venture the assertion, if you are over twenty years old, you cannot change and put your coat on differently without a distinct and conscious mental effort on each occasion, and every time this effort of will is lacking you will find yourself unconsciously doing it in the old way.

The same is true of a thousand things that we do every day without thinking. The way of putting on a coat is only one of an infinity of things done habitually. There is no right way or wrong way. One way of putting on a coat is as good as another, as long as the coat is got into and is not ruined in the process. Few of us realize the influence of habit on our daily

lives. We are accustomed to associate the word with something more or less discreditable and think of our habits as things we are better off without, such as the number of cigars we smoke a day, or the like, when, as a matter of fact, deprived of habits we would be almost helpless. If we were compelled to reason out everything we do, we would be in a state of indecision and never accomplish anything.

As habit thus impels most of the things we do, let us for a moment consider its bearing on the way we buy the things we use. Here self-complacency will obscure the truth. Most of us fancy that we use a certain brand of soap because we choose to do so. We may have had a reason for its use originally, but have we now? There are doubtless others just as good, but we resent the drug clerk's telling us so and attempting to sell us some. We think he is trying to interfere with our freedom of choice, but as a matter of fact, he is doing a more difficult and more serious thing. He is trying to break us of the habit of using that particular brand of soap, because the fact is that the use of a particular brand of any article is almost invariably a matter of habit. Reason does not enter into the matter to any appreciable extent. Reason, or what we may flatter ourselves is reason—but more than likely it was suggestion—may have influenced the original purchase, but it is habit that induces the successive ones . . .

We say we have the tobacco habit. What we have in most cases is a brand habit. I don't smoke tobacco generically but specifically. I smoke a certain brand of cigar or smoking tobacco. I call for it as a matter of habit. That brand habit of mine is worth money to the producer of the brand which I use. "Brand Habits" become fixed and permanent only by giving the purchaser by means of a trade mark or label a certain and easy method of identifying the article, something which the mind seizes upon and retains without conscious effort.¹

WHAT IS A HABIT?

A habit is something a person has *learned* to do. He was born with the ability to do some things, such as to cry, to spit nasty things out of his mouth, and to eat good things. But he learned to read, to recite the Ten Commandments, or to comb his hair.

A habit, however, may be a learned way of thinking as well as of acting. Thus, many people have a feeling of unpleasantness in connection with Friday or the number 13. Or they think of "brides" in connection with "June." They have formed a habit of associating one with the other. Memory is a similar type of mental habit. The multiplication tables have been used

¹ ROGERS, E. S., "Habit and Its Influence on Consumer Demand," *Printers' Ink*, Jan. 21, 1913.

so often that the habit is formed of always thinking 6 when 3 times 2 is thought of.

Consequently, for the sake of simplicity, the term *habit* will be used to cover not only learned ways of action, but learned mental procedures such as are often spoken of as "association" or "memory." For instance, say "Form a habit of thinking 'Ivory' whenever 'soap' comes to mind," instead of "Associate 'Ivory' with 'soap.'" Consider the idea whether or not to use a new stunt in a retail store not in abstract terms of "goodwill," but as to its effect on the public's habit of coming to the store.

Five Aspects of a Habit.—When a habit is mentioned, any of five aspects of a habit may be meant: *what is done*; the *drive* toward doing something; the *physiological structure* of the habit; *what is consciously in mind*; or the *occasion* that stimulates the habit into action.

The Response Aspect of a Habit.—Habits are generally named in terms of what actually is done, thus: tying a necktie; eating with a spoon; writing one's signature; reciting the Twenty-third Psalm; buying Campbell's soup; trading at the White House.

The Drive Aspect of a Habit.—There is usually a recognition of the impulsive drive of habit when such habits as drinking, gambling and drug taking are under consideration. The difficulty an addict has in controlling his tendency is well-known. And occasionally this drive aspect of a habit is recognized when a story is told on the "absent-minded professor," or when we relate how we changed our clothes for dinner and "came to" in bed. But ordinarily in everyday life no attention is paid to the fact that there is an impulsive drive in a habit, and that, given the proper occasion, the average person will act as he has learned to act, unless something interferes.

The Structure Aspect of a Habit.—The physiological structure of a habit is ignored in everyday life. The structural elements are never seen and so are overlooked. But clean-cut thinking regarding selling and advertising is dependent upon recognition of a structure.

Here is an analogy. On the wall is a push button and overhead is an electric light. When the button is pushed the light flashes on. The presence of electric current represents the impulsive aspect of this phenomenon. The light represents

"what is done." The push button, wires, and electric light bulb together with the distant power plant constitute the "structure." Another analogy is even better for the purpose—that of the automatic telephone. A man manipulates the dial and presently his friend Jones says, "Jones speaking." Another manipulation brings Smith to the phone. Here the structure consists of the sending telephone with its dial, wires to central, a vastly complicated system of wiring at central, wires to the receiving telephone, and the telephone instrument with its bell. Depending upon the dial combination, this or that friend's phone is reached.

In a human being a habit structure consists of a sense organ, nerve fibers from the sense organ to the brain, connecting fibers in the brain, nerve fibers from the brain to one or more muscles, and the muscles. When " 6×7 " is seen, the throat muscles move in such a way as to pronounce "42"; when " 6×8 " is seen, "48" is said instead. The stimulus " 6×7 " corresponds to the dial manipulation on the sending telephone. Depending upon what stimulus or dial manipulation is made, there results a certain connection in the brain or at central with the resulting definite action or particular phone ring.

The Conscious Aspect of a Habit.—There is a very decided difference between the structure of a human habit and a telephone. Whenever a habit structure is operated the human being that houses the habit structure is *conscious* of what is going on. A telephone system has no consciousness. What the relation is between the habit structure and consciousness no one knows. But it is known that with every habit activity there is consciousness of the stimulus arousing the habit and of the action that results.

When a habit is being formed the individual is very conscious of what he is doing, but as the habit becomes perfected he becomes less and less conscious of it, until a thoroughly formed habit is performed with a minimum of consciousness. In learning to drive an auto it is necessary to stop and think before doing each separate stunt and it is found particularly difficult to acquire the knack of doing two things at the same time because it is difficult to keep the mind on both simultaneously. The experienced driver does all these things easily and quickly

and with his mind almost entirely upon other matters. In drawing up job specifications of the duties of executives it was found that the executive who had been on the job from six months to a year could, on the average, tell more of what he had to do and explain each part in greater detail than those executives who had been doing the same work for a long time. The same situation is found when people are asked to explain why they buy a certain article. Those who have bought the article for years have long ago forgotten how and why they formed the habit. Their remarks are almost always of no value. But those who have just recently bought can recall fairly well what was in mind at the time they made the first purchase.

The Occasion Aspect of a Habit.—With every habit there is some occasion or stimulus that sets it off. When the occasion “9 × 7” is encountered, “63,” flashes to the mind, not “49” or “Mississippi”; when the occasion “getting on a street car in San Francisco” is encountered, a nickel is brought forth and put in the coin box. (But if the occasion is altered by “in Oakland” (not San Francisco), then six cents is deposited.) This is universally known. It seems preposterous to spend time on the point. But too often the significance of these facts in selling is overlooked. And it is most vital.

Habits are specific. Each act is in response to a specific occasion. An inquiry made among a group of young men showed that each had bought his wearing apparel from at least five different stores. Thinking of a hat led to one store, of shoes to another; yet some of the stores could furnish all their needs. The fact seems to indicate that this buying from a variety of stores was due largely to chance. Apparently, the boys happened to buy socks in one store when they first came to town and had more or less kept up the habit. And the same was true of the other articles of apparel. If any one of the merchants wants all the business from these young men he must encourage them to form five habits not just one.

Consider another example. Mrs. A puts Pears soap in the guest-room, but Palmolive in her own bathroom; she uses Ivory soap to wash dishes, Octagon to wash the clothes, and Lux to wash her delicate lingerie; while her husband uses Colgate's soap to shave with and Lava soap in the garage. Each specific occasion

sets off a different habit: each in this case involves the use of a different soap. If one of these soap manufacturers desires Mrs. A to use his soap for more than one use he must teach Mrs. A the habit. And the *habit will be a definite response to a definite occasion.*

The mind is not comparable to a filing cabinet. Ideas are not stored in brain cells, as some seem to think. Nor does one recall a previously acquired idea by referring to some sort of a card index system and then to the appropriate brain cell that houses the idea. Nothing of the sort.

The only way Smith can get Jones on the phone is by giving Jones' number. If he has not the number he is out of luck. So with most of the ideas a man has. If he has not the combination he cannot get the idea. Such an experience is common to almost everyone. When told the answer to some question, the average person will say, "Why, I knew that." Yes, he knew it in the sense that he once acquired the idea. But he did not know it in the sense that it would come into mind when the question was asked.

Not only is it true that a machine will turn out but one product, and only when the proper material is fed into it, but also that no one expects a defective machine to turn out good goods just because it is invited to do so. Yet much of our advertising is based on the assumption that a customer can be made by mere invitation; that a definite habit of buying can be built up without any effort.

Summarizing.—A habit on the objective side is a physiological structure that has been acquired; when the proper occasion is encountered energy is released within the habit structure causing a certain response to be made, or at least an impulsion toward that response. On the subjective side the person who has the habit is conscious more or less of the occasion, of the desire to act, and of the action he is performing, or wants to perform.

To develop a buying habit the seller must teach just what is to be learned. To do this he must know what it is that he wants learned. An analysis of a hundred advertisements will force the conclusion that many sellers either do not know what they want learned or else that they are using most inefficient methods.

HOW A HABIT IS FORMED

A habit results from one or more repetitions. In exceptional cases a person may learn from one experience. So most people formed the habit of leaving bees alone after being stung just once. But ordinarily such an intense experience is not present and the performance has to be repeated many times before it is really learned. Three admonitions a week for five years are not always enough to train a boy to comb his hair before every meal. The problem of getting men to say "Colgate's," instead of "Williams'," or "Mennen's," or "Palmolive," when buying shaving-cream is psychologically the same problem as getting the boy to comb his hair just before coming to dinner. Or, possibly rather, it is a more difficult problem, because every competitor of Colgate's is doing his best to break up the Colgate habit and substitute another one, whereas no one in the family is constantly telling the boy not to comb his hair.

An editorial in *Batten's Wedge* well expresses this necessity for repetition.

A man's name is mentioned and you say, "Yes, I've heard of him."

Later on you are introduced, and the next time he is mentioned you remark, "I've met him."

After a bit, you are able to say, "I know him."

You find he wears well and before long you say, "He's a friend of mine."

Many times you have gone through those stages that lead into friendship with people. And many times you have unconsciously gone through the same stages with inanimate objects.

The name of some article is mentioned and because you have seen it advertised you realize that you have "heard of it" somewhere. Then you try it, grow familiar with it, and soon its use becomes a fixed habit.

In the case of the automatic telephone system a number of electricians wired up the system in such a way that whenever a dial is manipulated on a sending phone the desired receiving phone answers or the signal is given that the line is busy. The hundredth call is made no more quickly or easily than the first. But in a human being the connection has to be learned. This means that with every repetition there is a diminution in the time required to make the connection, and an increase in ease. For instance, 2×2 can be responded to more quickly than 6×7 because it has been reacted to more often. If asked to

name a kind of corn flakes or toilet soap, Kellogg's or Ivory will be named by from two-thirds to three-fourths of people, and if the reaction time is recorded it will be found that not only are these names given more frequently than all others put together but in less time. These advertisers have built up habit structures in Americans that are very well developed. They have done so by causing Americans to repeat these trade names and the reasons why the products are good many, many times.

Development of a Habit Means a Genuine Change in the Individual.—When a person has formed any habit he has become a different individual from what he was formerly. Certain nerve cells in his brain have been modified and they will never be the same again. This fact is recognized in the drunkard or drug addict, but it is not emphasized in many other cases.

An interesting and significant illustration comes from a recent survey by a privately owned public utility. Using a clever method of rating interviews, the investigators rated the attitude of housewives toward the utility. In one district 64 per cent of the women were hostile because of the manner in which their complaints had been handled; in the district served by another branch office only 25 per cent were disgruntled. The first district voted strongly in the last election for the city to take over the company; the second district voted against the bond issue. Of course, many factors are involved here. But the data suggest that change of procedure in the first branch office may result in time in the development of a friendly attitude toward the company, replacing the present one of hostility, and that this change in the habitual way of thinking of these people will be reflected in their voting.

It is because of changes in the nerve cells that a salesman and a buyer view matters in a different way, as pointed out in Chap. I. They start out in life with, presumably, their nerve cells in the same condition. But their past experiences have caused different modifications in those nerve cells. Lippman's recent book, "Public Opinion," is devoted to making this point clear; and to showing how many social and political problems arise because of the different brain patterns which exist in different groups and which prevent them from getting the same point of view.

Not only the salesmen, but also the sales manager, the advertising manager, and the officials of the company have different points of view from the man who has never bought their product. Because this is true it is necessary to obtain, as clearly as possible, the point of view of the possible customer, also the point of view of the established customer. The recognition of this necessity has led to all manner of consumer and dealer analyses and to the policy that, at least, the officials connected with selling shall come in personal contact with buyers every so often.

FOUR THINGS TO BE ACCOMPLISHED IN SELLING

The aim of a selling organization is to make customers, to form in the minds of thousands of people the habit of buying a given commodity at a certain place. To do this there are four fairly distinct things to be accomplished. First, some prospective customers must be led to *buy the commodity for the first time*. Second, some prospective customers must be led to *buy the seller's brand for the first time*, instead of a competitor's brand. Third, those who have bought the seller's brand must be led to *buy it again and again*. And, fourth, those customers who are influenced by competitors must be led to *buy despite the competition*.

If it were necessary to run entirely different advertisements to accomplish these four aims, then each advertisement would only be one-fourth as efficient as it might be if each advertisement could accomplish all four at the same time. The same thing holds true in selling. If the salesman must employ four different sales procedures it will take him longer to acquire them, and he will be less efficient for a long time than if he can employ one general sales procedure.

Frankly, it is often impossible to accomplish all four aims at the same time. There are occasions when one aim must be emphasized even to the extent of ignoring the other three. The more, however, an advertisement can secure entirely new customers for the commodity, switch customers from another brand, maintain old customers, and prevent inroads from competitors, the more efficient it is, since, among the readers of any medium there are some who belong to each of these four groups.

And in the same way the salesman who can sell a prospect in such a way as to make a permanent customer is a more efficient salesman than one who has repeatedly to sell the man before securing him permanently.

The prospective customer who has never used the commodity at all must be made to feel some want and to see that the seller's commodity will satisfy it. Emphasis must be placed upon the elements on the central line of the buying formula (Fig. 1), but particularly upon Want, Commodity, Trade Name, Purchase, and Satisfaction. As it is also necessary to show this new customer how the commodity will satisfy his want, some emphasis must also be put upon Establishing the Adequacy of the commodity and upon Pleasant Feelings associated with the commodity and trade name.

The prospective customer who has been buying a competitor's goods must be led to see that the seller's goods will more thoroughly satisfy his wants than do the goods he is buying. Here emphasis must be put upon Adequacy and Pleasant Feelings associated with Trade Name, for the new customer must have reasons why the seller's commodity is better and he must come to feel more pleasantly toward it than toward the old brand.

The established customer is one who, when he feels his want, satisfies it by buying the trade-named commodity which he has bought before. He does not think of reasons for so acting, nor does he have any particular feeling in the matter, any more than one does in the case of shaving, or starting his auto. He has a well-established habit and when the occasion occurs the act is performed. From the standpoint of maintaining the habit the most important element is that of satisfaction resulting from the use of the commodity. So long as each use of the trade-named article brings satisfaction the tendency is for the habit to continue in force.

Forgetting in such a case is guarded against by general publicity, by reminder advertising. And in reminder advertising the emphasis is upon the items on the main line of the buying formula and particularly upon Trade Name and Purchase.

The hesitating customer is one who is confronted by a competitor's claims. A salesman in the store, or at the door, or in the office, or in an advertisement suggests a new trade-marked

commodity. Whether the new substitute will be bought or not depends upon the salesman or advertisement, and upon the strength of the old habit. In a real sense the habit within the old customer must fight the battle for the company. Whether the old habit will win or lose depends very largely upon its strength and the elements that compose it.

The strength of an established habit depends largely upon the number of times it has been performed, *i.e.*, upon the strength of the associations connecting Want, Commodity, Trade Name, Action, and Satisfaction. But its strength to resist the interference of a competing seller is largely in terms of the Reasons and Feelings that will come to mind at the moment. For these reasons and feelings actually function as would a salesman if he were present to defend the old habit of buying.

All Four Aims Can Be Accomplished When a Complete Advertisement or Sales Presentation Is Employed.—The seller who has in mind the ideal represented by the buying formula will shift emphasis from one element to another of this formula according as specific circumstances warrant. But such modifications will not produce radically new presentations; each will be a portion of the whole campaign. Because each will breathe the spirit of a complete presentation, regardless of the details emphasized, it will appeal to all four classes of prospects.

Questions

1. What is the essential difference between "making a sale" and "making a customer?" Explain.
2. What five aspects of a habit are described in the text? Illustrate each of them in terms of the habit: (a) of taking one's hat off when meeting a woman acquaintance; or (b) of writing one's signature.
3. Suppose in a very close election you were delegated to go and get Mr. Smith's support and you knew that all of Mr. Smith's neighbors were strongly on the opposite side. What would you aim to impress on his mind in your interview? Why?
4. Is there any difference between what you would aim to do in "selling" Mr. Smith and in selling a customer a particular make of shoes? Should there be any difference? Explain.
5. Name several things that storekeepers have done for you which have materially helped make you a regular customer.
6. Illustrate and explain the last paragraph of the text.

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CHAPTER VII

THE SALESMAN

To understand selling it is necessary not only to comprehend the processes involved but also to know salesmen and their varied duties.

No General Class of Salesmen.—It is quite appropriate to speak of stenographers or carpenters as belonging to a class. Although all stenographers are not alike and though they are not all able to do exactly the same work, yet they have a common basic knowledge and perform fundamentally common duties. But this is not the case with "salesmen." Recent investigations demonstrate that salesmen differ very greatly; that because a man can sell one commodity it does not follow he can sell another, or that because he can sell over the counter he can be successful in selling to the trade, or in house-to-house canvass. The evidence all goes to show that there is no class of men who can be called salesmen in the sense that they can sell anything. Instead of this condition, there are found to be many different kinds of salesmen varying in all manner of ways from each other.

Many men are called to selling; a few are chosen to become sellers. Many companies have found that 80 per cent of their sales are made by 20 per cent of the salesmen; and not a few companies, that 90 per cent of their entire business is placed by only 10 per cent of the force. Yet no one has drawn up specifications which will adequately differentiate the men who are truly successful salesmen from the men who sell enough to make a bare living or from those who do not sell at all.

The fitness of a man for many special occupations can be gaged to some extent by testing his general intelligence. Unless, for example, he has a certain amount of intelligence, it is useless for him to attempt to learn stenography. Or if he has more than a certain other amount of intelligence there is little use in placing

him as a file clerk for the very good reason that he will find the work too easy and monotonous and so lose interest and quit. But there seems to be no definite amount of intelligence required of every salesman. Among a thousand successful salesmen will be found some who can scarcely answer a single question in an intelligence test, some who can answer practically every question and many at every step between these two extremes.

In Fig. 27 are presented the general intelligence ratings of four groups of salesmen—counter salespeople, wholesale sales-

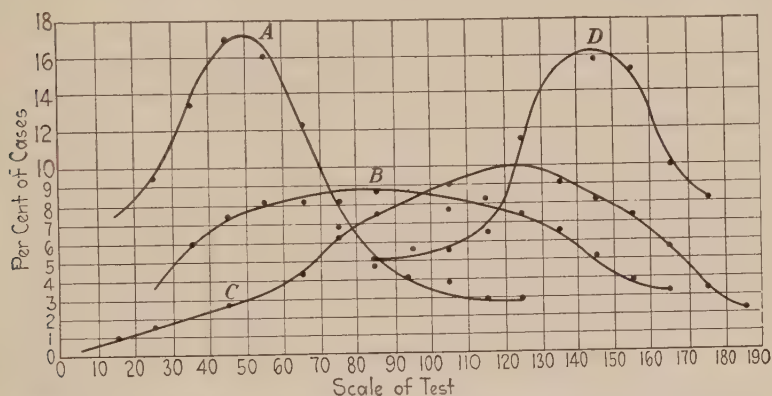


FIG. 27.—Distribution of intelligence ratings of four groups of salesmen. A. Counter salespeople. B. Wholesale salesmen selling to retail stores. C. Insurance salesmen. D. Salesmen requiring training at a technical college. (From J. B. Miner, "Standardizing Tests for Vocational Guidance," *School and Society*, 1921, p. 631.)

men to local retail stores, life insurance salesmen, and salesmen of such technical goods as power-plant equipment. The data show that these four groups as a whole do differ as far as general intelligence is concerned. The medians for the four groups are approximately 50, 90, 110, and 140. But when the wide distribution of these data is taken into account the differences in the medians lose nearly all their significance: Seven per cent of counter salespeople obtain a score of only 15, while three per cent obtain as high a score as 125; five per cent of salesmen of highly technical goods obtain scores as low as 85, while eight per cent obtain scores as high as 175. These two groups are as a whole fairly distinct. But life insurance salesmen range from zero to 190,

and wholesale salesmen have almost as great a range. Knowing that a man had an intelligence score of 100 would not help very much in deciding whether to hire him as a salesman or not, or whether to hire him to sell one commodity or another.

The same situation is true with respect to other personal qualifications besides general intelligence. Superior height and weight, possession of a pleasant smile, honesty, perseverance, tact, good health, all seem obviously desirable qualities. They are, of course, advantageous in any walk of life. But there are good salesmen who lack any one or even several of them.

Selling depends upon a great many factors. Under one combination of factors certain men can sell satisfactorily, under another combination they are not successful. Many Ford salesmen cannot sell Packards or trucks; many salesmen on commission fail when put on salary, and *vice versa*; many succeed under a "driving" salesman, who "treats them rough," when they would fail under a kindly disposed leader; and *vice versa*.

In selecting salesmen the problem is not to hire men who are "salesmen"; it is rather to fit men into one's sales organization. That organization must be viewed as a very peculiarly shaped hole, and the task is to find men who will best fit such a hole. And every sales organization must be thought of as a differently shaped hole from every other. Even two agencies of the same company require different qualifications in their salesmen for the two agencies differ at least in territory, living conditions, characteristics of the agency managers, and of the personnel in the office and among the salesmen themselves.

This situation makes it very difficult, if not impossible, to describe salesmen as a class and to outline their duties. But it is possible to describe the salesman of a certain company and to ascertain his particular duties.

Importance of Analyzing the Needs and the Characteristics of a Specific Company before Selecting Its Salesmen.—A vast amount of research work remains to be done before it will be possible for a company to select men who will become truly successful salesmen. Until such selection is possible there must continue to be the very great economic waste of ill-directed effort.

Without question the next step to be taken in this direction is the analysis of the duties of a company's salesmen. Coupled

with it may well go a study of the personality of its successful salesmen. When such analyses are completed a sales manager will be in a much better position to know just what he wants; and candidates will be able to see what will be required of them and to decide whether they will like to do the work or not.

Even though a sales manager has himself held the position of salesman he very quickly loses sight of many of the details of the job and fails to take them into account in hiring. And each sales manager is most likely to stress certain points which made a particular impression on him. All this results in his hiring men to fit certain *conditions which he has in mind* rather than to fit the *conditions which the salesman will actually find*.

Many an applicant for a selling position has a very hazy notion of what will be required of him; frequently he has a very erroneous conception. Unless his ideas agree with the actual requirements he is not likely to be a success. For example, one company found it impossible to obtain the business it knew must exist in certain counties in Pennsylvania until they secured representatives who did not feel it essential to go to a movie every night. Their old salesmen viewed their job as one that gave them this privilege and so refused to stop in small villages far removed from the railroad.

The method of securing complete information about a job is called *job analysis*. All students of selling should be familiar with this method and employ it as one of their tools in mastering the subject of selling.

JOB ANALYSIS

"Job analysis is a method of scientifically dissecting a job in order to determine the component elements and their influence upon the length of learning period of the worker, production, and labor turnover."¹

Job analysis may be viewed as the search for habits necessarily used by a worker on the job. So an auto salesman spends one day a week on the sales floor meeting prospects who come in; keeps a complete card index of all prospects; reports all prospects to office; etc. When extreme care has been exercised a

¹ STRONG, JR., E. K. and UHRBROCK, R. S., "Job Analysis and the Curriculum," p. 22, 1923.

surprising number of such habits can be listed, each representing a more or less routine performance for the old salesman but something that each new salesman must learn.

Once these habits are spotted it is usually not difficult to describe them clearly. But it is surprising how difficult it is to discover many of the routine performances of a worker. For example, an employee who pays off the men every Saturday noon will practically never think of this item unless interviewed on Saturday morning.

It is accordingly necessary for the job analyst to resort to all sorts of methods in order to obtain a complete list. He may interview the worker, also the worker's superior and frequently those working around the worker; he may observe the worker; and he may take the job himself, perform the duties and operations involved, and analyze the activities and record the results. If there are several persons working at the same job, he may very profitably interview as many as thirty of them. From experience it has been found that after thirty have been interviewed not enough new information is ordinarily obtained to pay for the extra time spent.

In addition to the above methods it is always worth while to secure all of the forms used by the company and to follow each one from its place of origin to the file where it is finally deposited. By so doing many activities of workers are discovered that are overlooked in interviews.

Most of the time spent by a worker or executive is devoted to performing more or less routine activities. But some of the time is spent in handling difficulties, in thinking out what to do next, in solving perplexing questions. These elements of a job are difficult to describe. For example, the item "adjusts complaints" describes what many a salesman does. But if the attempt is made to analyze this item into its elements one will encounter a great many difficulties just because so many complaints must be handled upon their own merits and the solution obtained after some thought. Nevertheless even here much of routine is found to exist.

It is frequently worth while to divide job analysis into two separate parts—*duty analysis* and *difficulty analysis*. Under duty analysis will be listed all of the routine duties of the worker;

under difficulty analysis will be listed all of the difficulties that arise on the job, all the perplexing problems that worry the worker. To know all of such difficulties is of great help in training the worker to perform his work properly.

When the duties and difficulties of a job are listed it is possible to proceed in a systematic manner to ascertain what the worker must know in order to perform his work. Upon such a basis a real training course can be established.

Procedure in Making a Job Analysis of a Sales Organization.—

After conference with the sales manager the job analyst should make sure that all the senior executives under the sales manager are aware of the survey he is to make. This can best be accomplished by having the sales manager explain the whole matter to them. Similarly, the junior executives under each senior executive must be acquainted, in turn, with the whole program. In other words, the job analyst must never interview an employee until that employee's superior thoroughly understands why the employee is being interviewed. Otherwise there will be considerable likelihood of misunderstanding and friction. Successful job analysis can only be made through cooperation: each person to be interviewed must be "sold" the idea that it is to his interest to have all the facts about his job recorded.

The job analyst should make a rough survey of the whole department, draw up a working organization chart, and make sure that every employee is accounted for upon the chart. When the various executives have O.K.'d the chart the analyst may proceed with his more detailed studies knowing that he has all of the employees grouped under their appropriate superiors.

It is best to start the detailed work by interviewing the lowest subordinates in the division that is headed by the senior executive most favorable to the whole enterprise. The interviewing may proceed step by step until all the workers in that division have been studied. Then the process must be repeated starting again at the bottom of a second division and working up to its senior executive.

Before interviewing an employee the job analyst should spend considerable time preparing as complete a list of questions as he can covering the duties of the employee. After the interview

he should reduce to writing the duties of that worker. This should be submitted to the worker for his O.K. When his approval has been obtained the list should be submitted to the worker's executive for his O.K. By so doing many mistakes are corrected and new items are added. And finally a statement is secured that both the worker and his executive have endorsed. When this is done they cannot complain later on that the specification is inaccurate.

When a considerable number of workers are all engaged in the same work, as, for example, salesmen under one executive, then the *check list* method may be employed. The first interview may be based, as has been seen, upon a series of questions prepared by the job analyst, who may know possibly very little about the job. After the interview the original series of questions will be materially revised in the light of the information obtained during the interview. Similarly, after each successive interview the questions are revised because of the new information that has been acquired. When the analyst finds that he is no longer obtaining fundamentally new material from his interviews, he discards the questions, and lists what he considers are the duties of the worker. Such a list is called a "check list." The check list may then be submitted to the remaining workers to be interviewed with the request that each item be checked that he does perform, each item be crossed out that he does not perform, and each item be reworded which does not accurately record what he does. Ordinarily, these lists should be checked by the worker in the interviewer's presence so that the worker's comments can be noted.

The check list has certain advantages and disadvantages over interviewing based on a comprehensive list of questions. It requires less time to obtain the same information. And the information that is obtained is expressed in about the same way. (It is very difficult sometimes to summarize the duties of several men holding the same position because each one has expressed his activities in different phraseology.) A third advantage is that information can be obtained very satisfactorily by mail since about all that is required is to check and cross out statements. The disadvantages are twofold. An individual tends to include among his functions the duties that are suggested by the list, if he does perform even once in a while something similar to them. On the other hand, he is quite prone to overlook other duties not listed. The success of the check-list method depends accordingly upon the interviewer's having a truly comprehensive knowledge of the job

before he draws up the list and also upon having some means of checking up on what the worker claims he does and doesn't do.¹

Job Specification.—Many writers have used almost interchangeably the terms "job analysis" and "job specification." Recently a number of authorities have recorded a distinction between them. Job analysis is essentially a *method* of studying men and their work, whereas job specification is the *record* of results obtained. The job analysis is the means: the job specification is the end.

A check list may be thought of as a provisional job specification. It is as good a job specification as the analyst can draw up at a given time. But its use is primarily for the purpose of improving upon itself. When a check list has been finally O.K.'d by all concerned it then becomes the official job specification for that job.

Procedure in Making a Job Analysis of a Salesman by a Student.—The student of selling can obtain a surprising grasp of the duties of the salesmen of a particular company by interviewing a number of them and drawing up a job specification. If the student goes at it in the right way he will find that most salesmen will try to give him the information he desires.

Before interviewing a salesman the student must do just what a job analyst has to do before interviewing each new employee; he must spend considerable time preparing as complete a list of questions as he can covering the duties of the salesman. Following are several questions from among nearly a hundred that one student so prepared:

1. Is it good practice to plan an interview? To what extent?
2. In your opinion, is a standard method of introduction, selling talk, and close to be preferred to a flexible or impromptu one? Why?
3. What is the best method of introducing yourself to a prospect? What is your first remark?
4. Should the selling talk be begun immediately? Why?
5. In constructing a selling talk, what particular phase do you think should be emphasized?
6. What have you found to be the most fruitful motives to appeal to?

¹ STRONG and UHRBROCK, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

Questions should be prepared covering not only the process of selling, but regarding the finding of prospects, the following up of sales, the training of salesmen, the performance of routine duties, the relationship with the sales manager, the credit department and all officials in the salesman's office.

After the interview the student should tabulate the duties of the salesman. Before interviewing the second salesman he should also revise his list of questions in the light of his recent interview. After several interviews have been secured the student should reduce the results to a systematic outline. By so doing he will be forced to get a clear and comprehensive view of the subject, and to note which duties are performed by all the salesmen he has interviewed and which are performed by only one or two.

In order to get a *complete* picture of a salesman's job, it is necessary to do more than interview salesmen. Try as hard and as enthusiastically as they can, salesmen cannot describe accurately just what they do. Consequently, it is important to interview the immediate superior of the salesmen in order to get his ideas about the job and the best methods of doing it. Third, and most important of all, the investigator must study the salesman at his work, observe his methods carefully, and make a complete record of just what he does and how he does it.

Job Specification of an Auto Salesman.—As has been seen, it is impossible to describe the work of salesmen in general. The only descriptions of salesmen's work that are possible are those of a single salesman, or of the work performed by a number of salesmen all selling the same goods and working for the same executive. Two such job specifications are recorded here. They are based upon the separate studies of several students. They are far from complete statements of what salesmen do. But they are comprehensive enough to illustrate job specifications and to show some of the similarities and differences between two selling positions.

The first of these job specifications is that of an auto salesman selling the Studebaker automobile in a small city. The items follow:

1. Attempts to secure a large number of friends and acquaintances, and to get them to report to him prospective buyers.

2. Gets names of prospects from customers.

3. Watches all papers and journals for second-hand car wants and for all new arrivals who may possibly desire a car.

4. Spends one day a week on the sales floor meeting prospects who come in. (If possible, gives demonstration and sells at this time, as delay is dangerous. Usually, however, gets name, address, phone number, and an appointment, because the family must see and ride in the car and the prospect wants time to think it over and see other cars.)

5. Attempts to get as much of the following information concerning prospects as possible: (a) Hobbies and avocations. (To make interview interesting from the prospect's point of view.) (b) Financial status. (In order to determine what priced car to sell the man as prospect is usually undecided.) (c) Make of car prospect drives, his experience with it and his attitude toward it; also what qualities prospect desires most in a car.

6. Has used car of prospect appraised; secures statement of condition of prospect's old car. (After appraisal has been made, should not try to raise it by attempting to "sell" old car to his firm, but should convince prospect that allowance for old car is fair and adequate. If necessary, uses appraisal sheet.)

7. Keeps complete card index of all prospects, plus information known about prospects and calls made, at his desk, and also keeps up-to-date list of prospects, addresses, and telephone numbers in loose-leaf notebook, which he carries with him.

8. Reports all prospects to office, entering a card for each one; makes report on prospect at office every ten days thereafter for one month, or until prospect has purchased.

9. Makes mental plan of attack rather completely before entering into interview with prospect, but allows for unexpected happenings.

10. Introduces himself to start interview and is careful to make no uninteresting or negative statements until prospect's interest has been obtained. (Does not give card or make move to shake hands unless prospect offers to.)

11. Attempts to make prospect like him by impressing him with the idea of his sincerity and honesty.

12. Does not usually start selling talk immediately, but allows prospect to wander a little on things purely to his own interest, thereby causing prospect to become interested in the interview.

a. If prospect is a woman, emphasizes finish, body lines, comfort, ease of control, also pride of ownership, popularity of car, distinction.

b. If prospect is a man, emphasizes superior performance and above arguments in a lesser degree; also wearing qualities, business organization, policy of house, firm's standing, service, guarantees.

13. Takes prospect (and family) for short ride to demonstrate car. Lets prospect drive, if possible. Gives acceleration demonstration but not a power demonstration unless asked for—too hazardous.

14. Appeals at all times to superior judgment of prospect, at same time maintains his own position, never appearing small in eye of prospect.

15. Does not argue with prospect concerning his objections. May present proof, but prospect is always right. Attempts to pass over objections drawing attention to something else.

16. Takes initiative in making close in most cases. Studies prospect to determine psychological moment for determining close. Presents his strongest selling point at this time and when prospect seems swayed, takes tentative order blank out of his pocket, making statement such as the following in order to give prospect a "push:" "This is the form of our contract, Mr. 'X.' I think you will agree that it is a very fair one. How much would you care to pay down as an initial payment on the car?"

17. If at this point the prospect balks, the salesman enlists the service of the sales manager, getting the prospect in the closing room, if possible, offering him a chair, a smoke, etc.

18. After prospect's order has been obtained, congratulates him on his good selection and taste.

19. Follows order through, gets necessary signatures on both tentative and final contract, sees that buyer's car is serviced properly with tools, accessories, etc., and delivers car in person on time, giving at this time advice as to its operation, and sends buyer off with a smile, inviting him to visit his service department as often as he can.

20. Continuously keeps in touch with buyer by use of telephone and goodwill calls, stressing service, keeping buyer satisfied, and a booster, and incidentally obtaining names of new prospects.

21. Makes appointments for buyer with service department if driving lessons are necessary for him or members of his family.

22. Occasionally sends out goodwill correspondence and catalogues.

23. Keeps himself well posted on the used-car stock of his firm, knowing about each car individually, so that he can mention a particular car to a prospect as one that he thinks would fit his needs, or is in his judgment a good buy for the following reasons, etc. (Should not have to refer to used-car list for price, year model, etc.)

24. Should be able to operate skilfully all makes of cars, and should be able to recognize make of car, its year model, body model, etc., at a glance, and should be able to tell roughly the general condition of a used car, its approximate value, etc.

25. Checks over price list whenever changes are announced by factory.

26. Should know as much about his product as possible, including the arguments used by competitors against it, the mechanical points in its favor, all mechanical and body specifications.

27. Should know something about the factory at which his product is manufactured and should know considerable concerning the organization, past record, policy, personnel, and methods of his own firm.

28. Should acquire as complete a knowledge of his competitors' products as possible, especially their weak points; should never knock his competitors' goods; should mention them only when the prospect brings them up and then only use comparative statements.

29. Should cooperate with sales manager and all departments at all times.

30. Should attend all sales meetings and present all complaints, offer suggestions, new ideas, etc. Should talk particularly of service. Should at this time discuss with others any new product appearing on market, etc.

31. Should advertise himself in an unassuming way by impressing all persons with whom he comes in contact with his good nature, neatness (not overdressiness), pleasant personality, honesty, sincerity, knowledge of his "stuff."

32. Should, in case of a "slump", work harder on the outside, circulate more among friends and acquaintances and never show signs of loss of confidence or downheartedness.

33. Should never be away from office more than 3 hours during the day on account of phone calls, etc.

34. Should not attempt to handle too many prospects, but should stay with the "warm ones" until he is through with them before going to the next one.

35. Should obtain some technical training whenever possible concerning the latest developments in salesmanship theory.

36. Should at all times be punctual and should be careful to cultivate no obnoxious habit.

Job Specification of a Retail Saleswoman.—The following specification outlines the work of a particular saleswoman, a mature woman of ten years' selling experience, five of them in the present position of selling lingerie in a small department store in a city of 5,000 population. She is essentially in charge of a separate department reporting only to the buyer and the owner-manager.

1. Goes over the stock every morning, seeing that it is well pressed, in place, and ticketed.

2. Fills in forward stock from reserve stock.

3. Replaces stock between sales and cleans up her department each night before leaving.

4. Constantly studies her goods as to styles, prices, quality, manufacture; reads trade papers and magazines in order to keep posted on these points.

5. Watches changes in the market and sees that the buyer anticipates calls that the store will have.

6. Sees to it that stock is not overloaded.

7. Shops in other stores to learn the quality and prices of her competitor's merchandise.

8. Holds a conference with her superior at certain periods to discuss prices and quality and the general condition of the stock.

9. Arranges the counter display every morning.

10. Notices her customers as soon as they approach her counter and greets them pleasantly, by name if possible. (She makes a point of learning names.)

11. Observes customers for "hunches" as to tastes and prejudices, needs, bases for appeal, type of decision.

12. Uses an original, impromptu selling talk to make her customer feel her interest.

13. Shows her line, taking into consideration: (a) her customer's price limit; and (b) the class of merchandise desired.

14. Takes customer's objections into consideration and considers whether observance of them will help or not.

15. Sells articles specifically asked for.

16. Suggests other articles that the buyer might be interested in, but does not insist upon them.

17. Brings sales to close as quickly as possible.

18. Handles special orders.

19. Notifies customers of arrival of new stock in which they are interested.

20. Checks up on credit conditions.

21. Introduces new customers who desire credit to the credit department.

22. Adjusts complaints due to defective goods, unfulfilled guarantee, general dissatisfaction. (Most of such cases are handled in terms of definitely established policies of the store.)

23. Makes out sales tag for each purchase neatly and completely. (Different tags are used for charge and cash sales.) Records her sales on her own index. Sends tags through to the cashier.

24. Makes out a daily and monthly report of sales.

25. Makes a daily and monthly report as to condition of stock.

26. Reports goods that are not selling and why.

27. Makes out "want" slips for new lines of goods.

28. Maintains pleasant relations with the public by little courtesies not a necessary part of the usual sale.

29. Keeps posted on store's window display and newspaper advertising.

30. Helps take inventory.

Although the above two specifications have to do with selling positions, it is clear that the two jobs differ in many respects. And no one would expect that if the two salesmen were interchanged they would make good in their new positions, certainly not until they had had considerable experience. Yet they are alike in many things. Both require memory of names and faces, subordination of self to prospect, tact, courtesy, accuracy in figures and reports, interest in market conditions, comparing of values, etc.

Time Study.—It is important to know what duties constitute a selling job. It is possibly more important to know which duties are most important, also how the minutes in a working day are to be distributed among the various duties. Relatively little has been done so far along these lines. Certain results can,

however, be given which throw light on the situation and suggest other problems to be studied.

Kenagy and Lange¹ report that it is not an easy task to hold a stop-watch on a salesman because most salesmen are upset and do not act normally. Accordingly, they recommend that the real purpose of such a study be concealed and that the salesmen be informed the analyst is interested in sizing up the customers. They suggest the use of a wrist-watch or small watch carried in the palm of the hand which holds the notebook, rather than a stop-watch. In their studies they noted the following: time of entering the customer's place of business, time spent waiting, time for each operation connected with selling, time taken going from one customer to another and time wasted.

TABLE I.—HOW A SALESMAN SPENDS HIS TIME

Company	A	B	C	D
Reaching prospective buyer.....	28.0 %	15.7 %	49.4 %	41.5 %
Sales interview.....	36.4	28.4	34.5	19.5
Goodwill*.....	6.5	39.0	5.8	6.5
Routine duties†.....	9.9			15.5
Collections.....	2.7	3.7		
Waiting.....	16.5	13.2	10.3	17.0

* Goodwill—conversation other than sales conversation, service, adjustments, etc.

† Routine duties—Posting advertising matter, filling out call books, care of equipment, catalogue changes, correspondence. Salesmen for companies B and C certainly have some routine duties but these were not segregated in the time study. It is probable that the routine work is included under "sales interview."

Table I presents data from four companies. Company A "manufactures a line of specialty products sold to retail dealers for household consumption. Each salesman of this company

¹ KENAGY, H. G. and LANGE, W. E., "Holding the Stop-watch on Specialty Salesmen," Bureau of Personnel Research, Carnegie Institute of Technology, April, 1923; reprinted in *Printers' Ink Monthly*, May, 1923. See also, KENAGY, H. G., "The Sales Plan for 1922," *Administration*, vol. III, p. 469, April, 1922; reprinted in *Printers' Ink*, Apr. 13, 1922.

has a territory approximating 1,000 dealers and is supposed to call on at least twenty of these dealers each day. Company B manufactures a high-grade line of food products and its salesmen likewise call on retail dealers. Company C manufactures an office speciality." Each salesman is supposed to discover his own prospects within his territory and must often make a number of calls before making a sale. "Company D manufactures a large line of office supplies and its salesmen have definite lists of customers, but these customers are not necessarily called on at regular intervals."

"The salesmen of Company B spend the smallest amount of time in reaching their dealers. This is due to the fact that the salesmen considered are city salesmen working in sections where their customers are relatively close together. The group of salesmen for Company A is composed of some city salesmen, but the majority of them were working country territory. Company C salesmen jump about their territories a great deal. . . . Company D salesmen work on foot but, because they specialize each day on a particular line of business, do not have the advantage of working each possible prospect in a given section of the city.

"The amount of time spent in waiting is extremely important for it represents a complete loss and reduces by so much the salesman's possible production. It is interesting to note that the percentage of time lost by the salesmen of the four companies is more nearly the same than is the case with any other division of the total time. The salesmen of Company C lose less time in waiting than the others, probably because they do not follow any regular route and can make back calls on days when they happen to be in the same district." But they spend far more time than the others traveling between customers.

"The percentages shown for goodwill are very similar except in the case of Company B. . . . In some cases the salesmen of this company actually take charge of a part of the dealer's display shelves and keep them in order. This means that when the salesman comes into the store he may often go into the stockroom, open up cases of new goods, carry them out to the shelves, clean up the old stock, and completely rearrange the shelf display. This is mere manual labor but the salesmen feel that it is an

important aid in securing the goodwill and confidence of the dealers. In the other three companies goodwill work takes the form of adjustments, dealer helps of various sorts, and general conversation intended to increase the friendly attitude of the dealer toward the company and the salesman. It may be that the salesman spends five minutes just talking to the dealer about some pet hobby."

The salesmen of Companies A and C spend practically the same amount of time in actual selling. But it is distributed among customers in a very different manner. Salesmen of Company C must call a number of times before securing permission to demonstrate their machine and they must make other calls in order to discover the needs of their prospects. In any one day they may actually demonstrate and try to sell only two or three prospective buyers and in addition make twelve or fifteen short calls. On the other hand, salesmen of Company A are expected to call and sell twenty customers each day, which means that the interviews will average about ten minutes.

"Detailed examination of the time studies of the salesmen in any particular company does not reveal any evidence to support the view that the longer sales interview is the more effective one. . . . In general, for the selling of a staple line of commodities to retail dealers, there is probably a limit to the amount of time which can be profitably spent and this limit is rather low, probably between five and ten minutes."

The successful salesman of a staple line is clearly one who finds a way to reduce the time spent on traveling about and in waiting, and uses the time thus saved in calling on more customers. He also knows what are the points to emphasize and presents them in a very few minutes.

PERSONALITY OF SUCCESSFUL SALESMEN

Because salesmen differ so greatly, depending upon the various factors which affect their jobs, it is impossible to present any picture of their personality, just as it is impossible to list the duties they have to perform. Many persons honestly believe they can spot salesmen and can describe their personality. But as far as the writer has been able to discover no such general descriptions will stand the test of cold statistical treatment.

More money has probably been spent in investigating the characteristics of life insurance salesmen than in investigating any other group of salesmen. Yet today little is known of an authoritative nature on the subject. The Life Insurance Sales Research Bureau summarizes the situation by stating, "No 'rating scheme' or 'scientific scoring method' is given by the Bureau at the present time because it feels that any plan which could be devised on the basis of available data would be of questionable value."¹

A number of attempts have been made of late to formulate a general law, but the results obtained are not revealing. A few investigations may be mentioned as examples of what data has been obtained.

With regard to the relationship between the age of a man applying for a selling position and his subsequent success in selling life insurance, Richmond² reports the following figures:

AGE OF SALESMAN	INDEX OF PRODUCTION
Below 26 years.....	59
26-30 years.....	105
31-35 years.....	158
36-40 years.....	124
Over 40 years.....	79

Data from another company show:

YEARS	FAILURE, PER CENT	SUCCESS, PER CENT
Below 23.....	51	49
24-32.....	42	58
33-38.....	36	64
39-44.....	47	53
Over 45.....	50	50

These figures make clear that an applicant thirty-four years old, other things being equal, is more likely to succeed than an applicant of twenty-three or forty-seven. But many young and many old men do succeed. And since other things are never equal, selection cannot be based upon age alone.

¹ Life Insurance Sales Research Bureau, *Manager's Manual*, sec. I, p. 76, 1923.

² RICHMOND, H. A., "Determining Factors in Selection of Salesmen," *Administration*, vol. V, no. 1, pp. 49-58.

Kenagy¹ reports that "only 5 per cent of insurance salesmen become big producers before they are thirty, whereas 22 per cent of salesmen selling to dealers and 40 per cent of house-to-house salesmen gain superior rating before they reach that age. Again, 34 per cent of the insurance salesmen continue high production after forty-five, while only 13 per cent of the salesmen to dealers and 10 per cent of the house-to-house salesmen are able to maintain the pace."

Richmond also reports data showing the relationship between production and the amount of insurance the applicant himself carries.

AMOUNT OF INSURANCE	INDEX OF PRODUCTION
\$0.....	25
\$1-\$4,999.....	79
\$5,000-\$9,999.....	138
\$10,000 and over.....	171

Several studies indicate that good salesmen average about two inches taller than the average man. Miss Manson² gives data to show the relationship between the height of 2,712 successful insurance salesmen and one million recruits in the United States Army:

HEIGHT	LIFE INSURANCE SALESMEN, PER CENT	UNITED STATES ARMY RECRUITS, PER CENT
Below 5 feet 4 inches.....	2	7
5 feet 4 inches and 5 feet 5 inches....	6	15
5 feet 6 inches and 5 feet 7 inches....	20	27
5 feet 8 inches and 5 feet 9 inches....	30	28
5 feet 10 inches and 5 feet 11 inches....	27	16
6 feet and over.....	14	6

As to education, there is no unanimity of opinion as to whether a college education is an advantage or not. But apparently an increasing percentage of college men are entering the insurance business.

Factors such as appearance, health, ambition, industry, perseverance, initiative, attitude of wife, desire for social service,

¹ KENAGY, H. G., "Characteristics of Successful Salesmen," Bureau of Personnel Research, Carnegie Institute of Technology, January, 1923.

² MANSON, G. E., unpublished thesis, Bureau of Personnel Research, Carnegie Institute of Technology, 1923.

and the like are all viewed as factors to be considered. But until there is some way of actually measuring these traits it is questionable if they can be taken into account except as they are today in the ordinary interview.

As an aid in deciding whether to hire an applicant or not Miss Goldsmith,¹ recommends the following method of scoring certain of the items on the application blank. The weighting is based on data similar to that given above.

AGE OF APPLICANT		SCORE	EDUCATION		SCORE
18-20.....		-2	8 years.....		+1
21-22.....		-1	10 years.....		+2
23-24.....		0	12 years.....		+3
25-27.....		+1	16 years.....		+2
28-29.....		+2			
30-40.....		+3	MARITAL STATUS		
41-50.....		+1	Married.....		+1
51-60.....		0	Single.....		-1
Over 60.....		-1			
OCCUPATION			INSURANCE		
Social.....		+1	Carried.....		+1
Non-social.....		-1	Not carried.....		-1
TYPE OF CONTRACT			CLUB MEMBERSHIP		
Full-time.....		+2	Belongs to clubs.....		+1
Part-time.....		-2	Does not belong.....		-1
		EXPERIENCE			
Previous life insurance experience.....					+1
		CONFIDENCE			
Replies to question: "What amount of insurance are you confident of placing each month?".....					+1
Does not reply.....					-1

According to this scoring method, an applicant may score all the way from -9 to +14 in "personal history." The "critical score," or passing mark (not reported) will not set off failures from successes with 100 per cent accuracy, but it can be fixed at a point which will eliminate a large per cent of failures and retain a high percentage of successes. There will be several borderline or doubtful cases which this procedure will not accurately place.

The devices used by some companies in selecting salesmen are: a personal history blank (its use has just been described); a general intelligence test; letters from previous employers; an

¹ GOLDSMITH, D. B., "A Study of Five Hundred Personal History Blanks," privately published pamphlet, The Guardian Life Insurance Co., 1922. See also RUSSELL, W., "How One Firm Picks Its Go-Getters." *The Nation's Business*, September, 1924.

outside investigative report about the man; a photograph; and a rating by the local manager and his associates. When a rating scale is used the interviewers are more apt to consider *all* the important factors than is otherwise the case. The writer well remembers one applicant who would never have been hired if only ordinary interview methods had been used, because of his outlandish dress and orange necktie, but whom the total score of the rating scale indicated to be an exceptional man, as indeed his employment proved.

Investigations have shown that the rating of one interviewer is not very accurate. Consequently, the average of the ratings of at least three interviewers should be utilized.

Johnson¹ describes the "ideal" applicant for a particular company selling an "intangible" as follows:

He has an attractive, commanding figure, between 5 feet 10 inches and 6 feet tall. He tips the balance in the neighborhood of 185 pounds. His age lies somewhere in the thirties, and he is married and has one child. Preferably he should have had a high-school or college training, though not necessarily a graduate of either. He should have had considerable business experience, but if he has had more than five years of sales experience we should investigate his record thoroughly to determine why he has not been able to establish himself in one of his previous connections.

Johnson tells this company to shun an applicant who is between twenty and thirty years old, single, of grammar-school education, about 5 feet 7 inches tall and weighing about 140 pounds. Also to shun a jaunty, old man, who claims loudly that "we old fellows can show them youngsters what selling is." Either of these may be a good salesman but the company can't afford to prove it.

Johnson adds to the above summary of his investigation the following:

So far the discussion has been confined to demonstrable facts. There is, in addition, one point upon which all experienced sales managers will agree as essential to success in any form of sales work. If an applicant can show that he is a *worker*, the chances are decidedly in favor of his success. Nothing, we will say rashly, is impossible to the salesman who puts in full hours

¹ JOHNSON, O. R., "Basing Selection of Salesmen on Analysis of Company Experience," Bureau of Personnel Research, Carnegie Institute of Technology, June, 1923.

every day, every week, and every month. The man who does this may not start off like a wildfire, but his annual production climbs and climbs until he is perched close to, if not at, the top of the list.

This particular quality would doubtless be of value to any salesman of any commodity. But so far we have developed no test to enable us to recognize its possessor with any degree of infallibility.

Questions

1. What is job analysis? Distinguish between it and job specification; also between it and difficulty analysis.
2. To what uses can job analysis be put?
3. What general precautions must be taken into account when drawing up job specifications?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of (a) a check list, and (b) a definite list of questions to be asked the employee?
5. Suppose your first assignment on joining a sales organization was to draw up job specifications of all the employees in that department. List the steps you would take up to the time you had completed your first job specification.
6. List all the duties that you believe a salesman of a certain company performs.
7. Prepare a list of questions to ask this salesman in an interview so that you will secure the maximum amount of information from him about his work.
8. Present the results of your interview in the form of a job specification. In connection with this report record: (a) name of salesman; (b) name of firm; (c) name of article sold; (d) whether salesman sells to jobbers, dealers, purchasing agents, or consumers; (e) whether salesman sells to initial or habitual buyers; (f) experience of salesman in selling present line, in selling other lines.

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CHAPTER VIII

THE COMMODITY OR SERVICE

Although today relatively few companies instruct their salesmen regarding the wants, needs, interests, and problems of their prospects, practically all give some sort of instruction regarding the commodity or service that is to be sold.

Companies, however, differ greatly with regard to the amount of knowledge of their respective commodities which they demand of their salesmen. Some companies require extensive experience and training, including working at a variety of jobs before they send a man out to sell; others start a salesman after more or less informal instruction of only a day or two. Then, again, some companies require a broad basis of knowledge concerning their product, whereas others ignore many phases but insist on certain features being thoroughly mastered.

Knowledge of the commodity to be sold is viewed as essential for three reasons: first, it enables a salesman to explain his proposition and to answer satisfactorily questions which the prospect may ask; second, it prepares the salesman thoroughly to present to the prospect just what he needs; and, third, it tends to build up the salesman's confidence in himself through making him feel his ability to cope with any prospect he may meet, and to be able actually to serve him.

If the prospective salesman does not acquire confidence and *enthusiasm for his line* after he has come to know about it, this fact should be indicative of his lack of fitness to sell the goods. He should then seek some other line, about which he can come to be enthusiastic.

SUMMARY OF KNOWLEDGE ABOUT COMMODITY

Just how much knowledge one sales manager believes a salesman should have concerning his commodity and company is

indicated by the outline below taken from Norval Hawkins' "Selling Process."¹

A. Primal knowledge:

- I. Production of goods:
 - 1. History of goods.
 - 2. Utensils used.
 - 3. Production methods.
 - 4. Industrial conditions under which goods are made
 - 5. Social-industrial conditions under which goods are made.
- II. Policies of house producing goods:
 - 1. In creating product.
 - 2. In manufacturing product.
 - 3. In financing.
 - 4. In man-organization.
 - 5. In distribution:
 - a. Selling force and selling contracts:
 - (1) Type of sales manager.
 - (2) Type of fellow-salesmen.
 - (3) Aids to salesmen.
 - (4) Advertising.
 - (5) Training of salesmen.
 - (6) Compensation of salesmen.
 - b. Goods:
 - (1) Type of contract given to purchaser.
 - (2) Transportation of goods to purchaser.
 - (3) Deliveries.

B. Secondary knowledge:

- I. Type of line:
 - 1. Staples.
 - 2. Novelty.
 - 3. Single.
 - 4. Multiple.
- II. Value of goods:
 - 1. In money:
 - a. Cost to house.
 - b. Selling price.
 - c. Money value to customer.
 - 2. In service:
 - a. Primary uses.
 - b. Secondary uses.
 - d. Efficiency.
 - c. Equipment.

¹ HAWKINS, N., "The Selling Process," p. 98ff., 1918. (His outline goes into far more detail than is reproduced here.)

e. Pleasure values.

f. Service opinions of others, from their actual experience with the goods.

III. Details of goods (minute study):

1. Sizes.
2. Colors.
3. Shapes.
4. Styles.
5. Qualities.

C. Similar knowledge of goods of principal competitors.

WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS REQUIRED OF SALESMEN

Consideration of several typical selling organizations will give a better idea as to what knowledge of the commodity is expected of salesmen than any general statement can give.

Cosmopolitan Distributing Corporation.—In 1920, a manual for salesmen was prepared by Paul H. Nystrom, sales manager. This manual explains the publishing concern in detail and may be outlined as follows:

1. Product and company. Hearst organization (8 pages); Hearst and his policies (19 pages); the six magazines (30 pages); other products (7 pages).....	64 pages
2. Planning selling campaign. General introduction (9 pages); study of territory (10 pages)	19 pages
3. Selling retailer.....	10 pages
4. Selling wholesaler.....	10 pages
5. Common objections.....	10 pages
6. Miscellaneous. Advertising (5 pages); helping dealer with unsold copies (2 pages); cooperation with American News Company (2 pages); competitors (3 pages).....	12 pages
Total.....	125 pages

This sales manual does not contain all the information given salesmen by this company, for they are continually receiving letters, data, and many other helps. But the outline above indicates what is considered important in training a salesman for this particular company. It is interesting to note that there is not even a subtopic devoted to the interests of the dealer to whom the sales are made. Here and there scattered through the manual are a few paragraphs relating to the subject. Apparently, all the dealer is considered to want is profit; and that one appeal is all that the salesman is warned to consider.

Wear-Ever—the Aluminum Cooking Utensil Company.—

In a manual for salesmen prepared in 1917, 12 out of 225 pages are devoted to a description of aluminum, the process of manufacturing the Wear-Ever goods, and the Wear-Ever Co. Much of the remaining space is devoted to detailed explanations of the various utensils. The manual may be outlined as follows:

1. Aluminum; Wear-Ever food utensils; the company.....	12 pages
2. General introduction and preparation for canvass.....	19 pages
3. Sample demonstration before a group of women.....	27 pages
4. Gaining an audience.....	7 pages
5. Talk on the set.....	33 pages
6. Closing.....	23 pages
7. Meeting objections.....	16 pages
8. Reserve material.....	24 pages
9. Helps and hints, sermons for salesmen.....	28 pages
10. Delivering utensils.....	5 pages
11. Relations of salesman to the company.....	17 pages

No one could study this manual without gaining a very clear idea of just what to do in almost every situation that might occur in a sale of Wear-Ever. The use of every utensil for sale is described, particularly in connection with demonstrating its use actually or by explaining just how it could be used.

Carnegie Steel Company.—Certain selected salesmen of this company are given an eight weeks' *intensive* study of the company's text—"Making, Shaping, and Treating of Steel." In addition to the study of the text the students are taken on inspection trips to the various works in the Pittsburgh district. Only eight men take the course at one time. Altogether about 250 salesmen have completed the course during the thirteen years since this work began. More recently a four weeks' review course has been instituted for those who had already taken the eight weeks' course.

Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company.—This company is typical of a number that are selling highly technical products in that it hires a large number of graduates of engineering schools and gives these young men an intensive course in its own plant. The course of training naturally depends upon just what functions are to be performed by the student. One example is sufficient to indicate the nature and scope of such training.

The prospective salesmen assigned, for example, to the Stoker Section of the Power Department are given thirteen months of experience working in various shops and one month in the commercial school, a total of fourteen months, as follows:

1. Turbine blading; governors, valves, and thrust bearings; turbine erecting; turbine testing; pump assembling; condenser testing..... 3 months
2. Industrial motors; transformers; switchboard and automatic control; power-apparatus testing..... 5 months
3. Boiler-house operations; turbine-room operation..... 1 month
4. Stoker assembly..... 1 month
5. Stoker erecting..... 3 months
6. Commercial school..... 1 month

The program of the Commercial School includes four classes a day for a month in which time the following topics are considered, arranged in the order of emphasis: interrelations and functions of departments; proposal orders and contracts; salesmanship; business English; advertising; character analysis; sales manual; commercial law; and claims, credits, and collections.

Life Insurance.—Until very recently life insurance salesmen, or agents, as they prefer to be called, were given no training at all beyond one or more conferences with their managers. Whatever information they ever acquired was picked up in the school of hard knocks, in agency meetings and conventions, and through study of the rate book. The majority who started failed, others hung on but earned very little, and only a small percentage became successes. The antagonism toward, and ridicule of, insurance agents is without question very largely due to the fact that a prospect seldom came in contact with a salesman who really had a thorough grasp of his business.

In the last few years a very great change has taken place and today there is an increasing emphasis upon training life insurance salesmen. Intensive courses have been established in a number of colleges and universities, and in 1923 shorter courses were given in Y.M.C.A.'s in many cities sponsored by local life underwriters' associations. Due to the activity of the Educational Committee of the National Life Underwriters Association and to the interest at Carnegie Institute of Technology in research in salesmanship and personnel work, an eleven

weeks' intensive curriculum was established at that institution in the fall of 1919. Five courses were given: Functions of Life Insurance (the services insurance may render); Principles (study of contract and ratebook); Psychology of Selling; Practice of Selling; and Field Work, to which the students were expected to devote their afternoons.

This school is of interest because it exemplified five policies seldom made use of in educational work. First, men and women already engaged in a profession or about to enter it were brought to a college for specific training in that profession. School teachers have been having such training for years, but men in business have not. Second, the school has been moved about the country, going to students instead of requiring the students to come to it. (It has been held in San Francisco, Los Angeles, and Seattle as well as in Pittsburgh, and a similar school at New York University has been held in St. Louis and Buffalo.) Third, students have been required to sell while in attendance. Fourth, the diploma is not awarded until a year after graduation and then only if the graduate is still in life insurance work and has succeeded in selling a certain minimum amount. The diploma accordingly does not merely indicate success in doing class work but in addition genuine success in the work for which the student was trained. Fifth, the tuition was set high enough to meet all expenses and to secure the service of competent instructors.

Burroughs Adding Machine Company.—In 1921 this company issued an eighty-nine-page booklet (8½ by 11) entitled, "A Simplified Accounting Plan." In it is explained very simply how to carry on the accounting work for a small store. Other booklets cover the accounting necessary in a garage, etc. Naturally, these booklets explain the necessary work as it is performed on Burroughs machines. Nevertheless, the spirit of these booklets is one of service to the small merchant who knows very little about keeping his accounts and frequently fails in business just because of his ignorance.

The introduction of manuals of this sort puts the emphasis in selling upon the buyer's point of view. The buyer wants to succeed in his business; he wants to and must keep books. The Burroughs salesman shows him how to do the latter and so aids him to succeed. Note in such a selling program that the sales-

man does not start by talking about his product: instead, he tells about installing an adequate bookkeeping system, which in turn naturally leads to the use of bookkeeping machinery.

Such a procedure makes it imperative that the salesman know his goods and also be acquainted with accounting systems. Knowledge of the latter is now being required of salesmen of this company. Information concerning the company, the product and selling methods, is furnished in four booklets of the same size. The main topics are:

1. The company.....	9 pages
2. Qualifications, etc. of the salesman.....	6 pages
3. The product, how manufactured, tested, etc.....	28 pages
4. Approach.....	15 pages
5. Sales talk, appeals, selling point, etc.....	37 pages
6. Demonstration.....	22 pages
7. Objections and answers.....	29 pages
8. Analysis of territory, prospect's business, selling methods...	30 pages
9. Closing.....	9 pages
10. Installation and trade-in.....	13 pages
Total.....	198 pages

The introduction of the topic "analysis" is notable here. Part of the material in these thirty pages is designed to aid the salesman in studying the prospect and his needs. One paragraph reads as follows:

You must analyze your prospective buyer. This is most vitally important. You must analyze every prospective buyer first in order to find out what records he keeps and how he handles them. Then to find out what he should keep that he does not. Then to find out how best you can apply a machine to handle these better than he handles them at present. Then to apply the best machine suited for that particular work.

This company has recently installed a new system of training salesmen. The salesmen are required to cover a definite course of study and are examined every sixty days by district instructors. If a passing grade is not made the salesman is required to do further work. Eventually he is dismissed if he does not pass satisfactorily. The entire program involving the study of textbooks, company manuals, demonstrations, and units on systems and methods requires a year's work. The method has the advantages of a correspondence course coupled with the benefits of personal contact with an instructor from time to time.

A DIFFERENT EMPHASIS IN SELLING FROM THAT IN ADVERTISING

In both advertising and selling the seller must know his product. To know means to analyze it in every way possible. This thought has often been expressed in the following words:

“Weigh it; smell it; taste it; pound it; take it to pieces; put it together; listen to it; squeeze it; shake it; roll it; spread it; pour it; bite it; file it; whittle it; burn it; freeze it; soak it; saw it; cook it; eat it; kick it; run it; stop it; bang it!”

But after the product has been thus scrutinized and analyzed the advertiser endeavors to pick out the one “*big idea*”—the one point which distinguishes his product from competing products and which at the same time is likely to have the greatest influence upon prospective buyers. The advertising campaign is then built about this one central theme. Other selling points may be utilized but they are relegated to a secondary place in the whole program.

The salesman, on the other hand, may use this “big idea” in his selling, but he must be prepared to use any and all of the telling points of his product.

The advertiser must frame his message so as to sell the largest number of his possible buyers. In doing so he must neglect those prospective buyers who do not respond to this appeal but might respond to some other appeal.

The salesman meets personally each prospective buyer and so has an opportunity to sell each one if only he presents the appropriate appeals. He must, accordingly, keep all of his appeals constantly in mind; must continually refresh his mind about his product and its uses; and must forever be studying his prospects in order to determine what it is they want and how his product can be used to satisfy them.

MARKET ANALYSIS

How to reach prospects, as far as it concerns individual salesmen, is discussed in Chap. XXIV. How to reach prospects, as far as it concerns methods of distribution, is quite another problem. This latter problem does not belong within the scope of this text. It is a problem primarily of sales management, not of selling. The student of advertising and selling should, however,

know of its existence and see its relationship to his own more immediate problems. A few words on *market analysis* are in order.

Market analysis is concerned with a study of the wholesalers, retailers, and consumers who are now actually using the seller's product and those who seemingly ought to be doing so; and also with a study of what competitors are doing.

An analysis of the wholesale market should result in answers to questions of this sort:

1. How long has the wholesaler constituted our immediate market?
2. Why was he originally chosen as our immediate market?
3. Are the conditions which dictated the original adoption of this market now operating?
4. Is the wholesaler satisfied with our treatment of him?
5. Is he "sold" on the superior merit of our goods as compared with similar goods?
6. Is the wholesaler's percentage of profit on our goods as great as on competing goods which he does not handle? Etc.

An analysis of the retail market should result in answers to questions of this sort:

1. What is the nature of the retailer's location?
2. Does he have modern show windows? Are they attractive? How often does he change them?
3. Has he modern fixtures? Are they arranged to care for the trade advantageously?
4. Is the store modern in other respects, such as lighting, heating, etc.?
5. Is the stock attractively displayed? Is it marked in plain figures or characters?
6. How much stock does he carry?
7. What is its turnover?
8. How much of our stock does he carry?
9. What is its turnover? Etc.

Consumer Analysis.—An analysis of the ultimate consumer market seeks to determine the extent and character of the demand. Demand should be analyzed from the standpoint of location, consumers, climate, financial conditions, transportation, and competition.

Under the heading of location, it should be ascertained whether the demand comes from cities, small towns, or rural localities, also whether it is localized or national in scope, etc.

In a similar manner it should be ascertained whether the customers are rich, in medium circumstances, or poor. And so on.

PLEASE READ QUESTIONS CAREFULLY AND ANSWER AS FULLY AS POSSIBLE

1.—Do you use
Coffee Yes ☐ No ☐
Tea Yes ☐ No ☐

2.—What BRAND do you use regularly?
a—Coffee _____ How long have you used this brand? _____
b—Tea _____ How long have you used this brand? _____

3.—What BRAND did you use before the one you use now?
a—Coffee _____ Why did you change? _____
b—Tea _____ Why did you change? _____

4.—When buying Tea do you ask for either green or black? Yes ☐ No ☐ Which? _____

5.—How many pounds do you buy at a time?
a—Coffee _____ How often? _____
b—Tea _____ How often? _____

6.—Please name, in the order of your choice, the three BRANDS you like best
Coffee— _____ Tea— _____
First _____ First _____
Second _____ Second _____
Third _____ Third _____

7.—What price do you usually pay for
a—Coffee _____
b—Tea _____

8.—In what form do you buy coffee?
a—Packed in vacuum tin can ☐
b—Packed in tin can (not vacuum) ☐
c—Parchment paper bag ☐
d—Paper carton ☐
e—Bulk—packaged by grocer ☐

9.—Where do you buy your
Coffee _____ Tea _____
☐ —regular service grocer — ☐
☐ —chain stores — ☐
☐ —traveling wagon agents — ☐

Please follow directions carefully in answering this question.

10.—Out of the 7 morning meals per week please indicate at which you serve any of the beverages listed below. For example, if you serve hot coffee every morning of the week during the summer, place the number 7 in the morning column under SUMMER. Do the same for the noon and night meals under SUMMER. Then indicate the number of times per week you serve any of the beverages listed for each meal during the WINTER. For example, if you serve hot coffee 3 mornings and hot chocolate 4 mornings per week during the winter, place the number 3 opposite hot coffee and the number 4 opposite hot chocolate in the morning column under WINTER. Do the same for the noon and night meals.

	SUMMER			WINTER		
	Morning	Noon	Night	Morning	Noon	Night
Hot Coffee						
Iced Coffee						
Hot Tea						
Iced Tea						
Hot Chocolate						
Iced Chocolate						
Cocoa						
Coffee Substitute						

11.—What beverages, if any, do you frequently serve between meals?
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

12.—What beverages do you most frequently serve to your children?
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

13.—What factors influence you most in buying
Coffee _____
Tea _____

14.—How do you prepare coffee?
a—Ordinary coffee pot ☐
b—Percolator ☐
c—Drip method ☐
d—Triculator ☐

15.—Do you budget your income; that is, plan for its expenditure in advance? Yes ☐ No ☐

16.—Do you keep an account of expenditures? Yes ☐ No ☐
If so, in what form? _____

Do you live in the country ☐ Town under 2500 population ☐ City over 2500 population ☐

P. O. Address—City _____ State _____

FIG. 28.—Questionnaire used in consumer analysis. Prepared by C. R. Niklason.

In making such an analysis, the attempt is to obtain all information possible concerning a prospect's reasons for buying a commodity from his own or a competing company; also concern-

ing how much is bought now and how much might be bought. A *questionnaire* is the favored device in getting this information. And when these are properly prepared and handled, a great deal of valuable information is received (see Fig. 28).

Value of Using an Article before Attempting to Sell It.—In 1921, *Printers' Ink* ran a series of articles on this general subject, signed by an "Ex-copy Chief." A considerable part of the fourth article¹ is reproduced here as it sets forth very clearly the value of using an article before attempting to sell it—one phase of consumer analysis of direct interest to advertising men and salesmen.

The president of a certain New York advertising agency strolled into the copy department one morning and found one of the copywriters struggling over the writing of a farm-paper advertisement for a well-known roll roofing. At the head of the sheet of copy paper over which the man was frowning were just three words—"Easy to Lay."

"How do you know it is easy to lay?" asked the president with a smile. "Did you every lay any?"

The copywriter looked up, floundered for a minute, and then admitted with a grin he never had laid any, and that all he knew about this roofing he had learned from the advertisements in the agency's files.

"I thought so," remarked the president. "That's what I came in here about. They are using this roofing to roof a whole row of chicken houses on a poultry farm out near my place and I want you to go out there and spend the afternoon watching the men. If possible get them to let you help. Don't let on that you know anything about roofing, but talk with them about it. Ask them questions about ready roofings in general—how they should be laid, what sorts of buildings they are best suited for, what they are made of, how long they last, how they begin to 'go' when they do start to weather, why they are using this particular brand—all the questions you can think of to ask. And on your way back this evening jot down all the ideas and information you have acquired."

The next morning the president stepped into the copy department about 10:30 and found a very busy copywriter with five pieces of farm-paper copy written and a sixth almost finished.

"Oh, I got more ideas than I can use in 6 months," enthused the copywriter before the president had time to ask a question. "We've only been skimming around the edges in our copy."

That was two years ago, but to this day whenever copy is needed for that roofing the requisition automatically goes to this one man, who "knows more about it than any man in the shop and writes such darn convincing

¹ "Use—a Fruitful Source of Marketing and Copy Ideas," *Printers' Ink*, Oct. 20, 1921.

ads," as one of his fellow copymen once expressed it. All because he has seen the product *used*. He writes *facts* and deals in *ideas*. His copy appeals because he knows what he is writing about.

It is undoubtedly true that far too much copy is written and too many marketing campaigns are planned by men and women who are working with merely an academic knowledge of how the particular product or machine or commodity—or whatever it is they are advertising—is used. Yet actual use is one of the most effective developers of copy angles and basic marketing ideas.

Perhaps it should be admitted, also, that use is a great disillusioner. There are some men who hesitate to use the commodity or product they are advertising or selling because of this very fact; it spoils some of their pet arguments and copy claims.

It is the present writer's strong conviction that this is an added argument for, rather than an argument against, use. For if the copy claims and arguments are not based on fact, they are after all only copy claims and arguments; they may make the first sale, but they will eventually militate against the product's success if persisted in.

But the important point is, that if the claims that have been made in an idealized conception of the product are not based on fact or performance, the sooner that is found out the better, for the sooner the searcher will start out to find what there really is about the product or its performance that can be used as the "big idea" upon which to base its marketing plan, or upon which to build some particular advertisement or sales solicitation.

Often the preliminary study of a product will develop a list of general claims which, when strung together, sound very impressive to the man who compiles the list or who makes the product, and which would sound impressive to the consumer and the retailer also were it not for the very simple fact that most competing products claim the same list of general benefits or advantages!

This leads inevitably to the conclusion, too seldom appreciated by advertising men, that a list of general claims is almost never as effective in selling a given product as some outstanding quality or characteristic about the product that cannot be, or at least has not been, appropriated or fully exploited by the producers of competing products.

If you were to start out on a selling trip with a skilful salesman who was taking out a new line for the first trip you would see this demonstrated. You would find that for the first few days the salesman would flounder more or less in his selling, using the line of selling arguments the house gave him. But after the first ten or twenty calls—or perhaps even sooner—you would find him dropping most of the line of selling arguments furnished by the house and hammering on some one outstanding feature of the product or its use or its market ability or its price or the terms on which it is sold.

Wherever he went he would hammer on that one idea or fact or feature, and his order book would begin to fill up. What would have happened is that he would have found the "big idea" that would sell that product to retailers most readily.

Obviously, that idea would have to be one that was demonstrable to the retailer, and to be demonstrable it would have to be a *fact*, not merely a *claim* (if that product was ever to be sold in that territory again!). All of which proves that the sooner the advertiser disillusion himself on the copy claims about any product, and finds out the true *facts*, the better off he is likely to be. And there is no better or quicker method of doing this than by actually using the product, or if that is impossible, watching it used.

The salesman can afford to start out with a list of general claims because as rapidly as he finds which ideas are not important, except perhaps as background facts, he can drop them, or at least put the soft-pedal on them, until he narrows down to the "big idea" that makes sales. This may take him a few days or weeks and cost a few dollars or a few hundred dollars. When it comes to advertising this is too expensive. The advertiser cannot afford to do this because he is investing too many hundreds or thousands, or even hundreds of thousands, of dollars in each piece of copy. He should *know* what the "big idea" is that will sell his product more surely than any other *before he goes ahead*. If he cannot find this idea in his own office by analyzing the product itself, or by the question method of analyzing the consumer's use of and attitude toward, the particular class of products to which his belongs, the use method may develop it for him.

Value of Information That Can Be Supplied by Dealers.—Another excellent source for obtaining information as to what the prospect wants is the dealer. Our Ex-Copy Chief discusses this in his sixth article.¹

Advertising men as a class have never fully appreciated, nor taken proper advantage of, the dealer's knowledge of why people buy—or do not buy—the particular brand or line or item of merchandise they are advertising. They are apt to think of retailers, as a class, as small-caliber business men without the wit or judgment to discover or recognize fundamental selling ideas. And, excluding the most intelligent and successful retailers, there may be some justification for this attitude, for retailers as a class are none too intelligent as merchandisers, as is convincingly demonstrated by the high mortality rate among merchants in all lines.

At the same time, even the smallest retailer comes in direct contact with his trade, and he knows their reaction to your product if you but have the wit to draw it out of him. He will not, as a rule, be able to tell you glibly just why people buy your product in preference to your competitors', or your competitors' in preference to yours; but if you talk to him for a while you will begin to get a picture of your product that you perhaps never have had before. And if you talk to twenty or thirty or forty retailers, the composite picture will gradually begin to develop certain definite facts or ideas that stand out sharply. And generally before long

¹ "Get the Dealers' Picture of Your Product," *Printers' Ink*, Nov. 24, 1921.

one will stand out more prominently than the rest and you will begin to entertain the conviction that this is the "big idea" for which you have been looking, and that some of the other points that you and all the rest of the folks at the office have regarded as most important are really only background facts, valuable as such but not of paramount importance in influencing sales.

If your experience follows the usual course, you will in your travels come upon one or two dealers who have been preeminently successful in selling your product and who have, either consciously or unconsciously, concentrated on the idea that your investigation has developed as the most effectual sales-clinching idea, and there you will have found your proof that you have the "big idea" that will outweigh the claims of your competitors and sell your product to the largest possible number of people.

It is true that the modern merchant does very little arguing with his customers over whether they would like this brand better than that, or whether this appliance will do the work better than some other. He has learned to give his customers what they ask for if he has it, for it saves time and they are better pleased. Nevertheless, he does get many sidelights on almost everything he sells. People ask him questions which show him their minds, and not infrequently they volunteer information as to why they prefer a given product or brand.

There is often a finality about a shopper's decision that is appalling or gratifying, depending upon whether it is working for or against you. This is particularly true of women shoppers. They "would not have such and such a vacuum cleaner (or oil stove or fireless cooker, or what not) in the house" because of so and so about it. Or they would not think of using a certain toilet preparation or furniture polish or fruit jar or canned fish. Why? In some cases the reason is a mere whim. In others it is deep-seated conviction. In either case, frequently it could be overcome by the manufacturer or producer, if he were but definitely aware of it, by featuring some positive idea about his product so much bigger that it would crowd out the negative idea. *For shopping decisions are governed by ideas, and all ideas are subject to bigger ideas.*

On the other hand, it happens not infrequently that shoppers are buying a product for some reason that the manufacturer or producer has never taken seriously himself, and to double or treble the sales of that product requires but to double or treble the prominence of the idea representing that reason. This is a simple statement of a tremendously important marketing truth. If more business men, and particularly advertising men, realized this there would be fewer idea-less advertising campaigns running in the newspapers and magazines.

Referring back to the subject of negative ideas, let us face another fact not generally appreciated: There may be a "big idea" working *against*, as well as *for*, a product. The idea may not be very big actually, but relatively it may be big enough to overbalance all other ideas concerning that product. More than one manufacturer has gone down to defeat—and often needlessly—in a battle with a negative idea about his product. Natu-

rally, the facts must be known before steps can be taken to overcome an idea that happens to be working the wrong way. And the dealers' picture is quite likely to develop all the facts, both for and against.

There is only one really effectual way to get the dealers' picture of your product and that is to go out among the dealers and talk with them—and with their clerks. Questionnaires are all very well, and so are salesmen's reports, but a personal chat is most likely to give you a clearer picture of your product as it looks at the point of sale. One reason is that you see it in the setting of its competition, and the other is that you can explore any unexpected paths that may open up before you as you talk.

Three things are of vital importance in starting out to get the dealers' picture:

First, that you keep an absolutely open mind and be prepared to entertain any ideas that your investigation may develop.

Second, that you keep completely hidden in the background the fact that you are looking for the "big idea." If you do not, the dealer will either get stage fright, or else he will strain his imagination trying to help you find the idea, and in so doing very possibly throw you completely off the track.

Third, that you be patient and not try to hurry the picture. The true artist never goes up to a picture. He stands back and lets the picture come to him. So should the investigator who is out to view the dealers' picture of his product. If he looks too closely or too intently he will get a distorted picture. But if he goes along his way, getting all he can from each merchant in an easy, chatty way, without trying to make weighty deductions out of each little remark or incident, and without worrying about when he will begin to see the picture, the first thing he knows it will begin to come to him, faintly at first, and then a little more sharply, until some morning he will wake up with the complete picture developed. When that day comes he will wonder why he has never seen his product or proposition from that viewpoint before. And if he is fortunate he will find that he has discovered the "big idea" upon which he can base his entire marketing campaign.

Meanwhile as a by-product he will have developed enough ideas and angles for advertisements, booklets, demonstrations, etc., to last him a long, long time for he will get not the office viewpoint on his product, but the consumer viewpoint as revealed at the point where the decision for, or against, his product is actually made.

Value of "New Uses."—The discovery of a new use often results in a decided increase in business. Fleischman's yeast found a new market and greatly increased sale when it was sold as concentrated vitamins. When the market for Eversharp pencils was saturated, an entirely new market of 33,000,000 possible buyers was opened up, by simply making a different pencil for school children.

New uses are nearly always stumbled on. Some one, more or less accidentally, employs the product to eliminate some obstacle. By getting close to consumers and dealers these discoveries are much more likely to be noted and utilized.

The term "use" is a valuable one in selling. But it should be realized that it occurs when the seller is viewing matters from his own point of view. Buyers seldom use the term. They think of what they want and how they can get what they want. Consequently to talk about the uses of one's product is not so effective as to bring to mind what the prospect wants and how the product will satisfy him in that respect.

SUMMARY

There is really no limit to the amount of information about one's goods and one's company, also about competing companies' goods, that a salesman can profitably acquire. But ordinarily a salesman should present to a prospect very little of all that he knows. His knowledge should be used as a physician employs his technical training. It should be employed in diagnosing the prospect's needs and in prescribing the proper remedy.

Many sales managers conscientiously object to giving their salesmen too much technical information just because it is so often misused. Because the salesman has found it interesting, he makes the mistake of thinking his prospect will be interested and also influenced by it. But this is seldom the case.

All his technical information, as has just been said, should be utilized by the salesman in his thinking, but little of it need ever be told any buyer. What the salesman must always keep in mind is that the buyer will buy his product only when he views it as an adequate means of supplying his wants.

Questions

1. Suppose you wished to buy an electric washing machine, or automobile, or dining-room set; what information would you need to obtain before buying?

2. Call upon several dealers selling such a commodity and note the information you are able to secure from them. Include the information supplied by booklets they may hand you. Are dealers able satisfactorily to answer your questions?

3. Write to several concerns that are advertising the commodity and note what information they supply you, and in what form.

4. Suppose you accepted a position selling such an article. Outline what additional information you feel you should obtain in order to fit you to sell.

5. Give several examples of where a seller talked "use" and failed to interest his prospect. How should they have presented their cases?

6. What factors must be taken into account in preparing a questionnaire? (See STARCH, D., "Principles of Advertising," chap. VII, 1923.)

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PART II

HOW MAN SATISFIES HIS WANTS

Selling should be the process by which a salesman leads a prospect to find an adequate method of satisfying his wants and needs by means of the seller's goods.

The starting point of this process is the desire of the prospect. Some knowledge of man's natural wants and of his normal methods of seeking satisfaction, is essential to our study. The subject is considered in Chaps. IX to XIII.

Immediate satisfaction of a want is often followed by regret. This is an old truism. The aim of good selling is to create permanent satisfaction as well as transient pleasure. This means selling in terms of needs. The attainment of this end is discussed in Chap. XIV.

Because feeling plays a very important rôle in all behavior, Chap. XV is devoted to the subject.

Part II, then, treats of the satisfaction of man's wants. It lays the foundation for those processes of influencing others which are presented in Parts III and IV, and at the same time, explains in detail the principal points advanced in Part I.

CHAPTER IX

MAN'S NATIVE WANTS

If selling is to be based upon the wants of a prospect, as has been emphasized in Chaps. I to VI, it is obviously essential that the seller shall know what wants the prospect has, or may have.

Seemingly, an easy way to determine all the wants that a prospect may have would be to observe what he does, what he says, and as far as possible what he thinks; and then to interpret these observations in the light of a study of one's own motives and desires. But it is very difficult for a man to obtain a real genuine knowledge of his own wants. He experiences many of them every day. But he seems to be peculiarly unable to isolate them, to get them clearly before him, to admit that he has them, to know them as he does other facts in life. Man's mind is apparently so constituted that it does not focus upon the wants which are present within it but rather upon the possible means of satisfying those wants. And in the case of wants that are called selfish or immoral, man has learned so to disguise them in order to appear well before others, as well as himself, that he actually fools himself in a great many cases.

WHAT IS A WANT?

A want is a lack at the moment of some satisfaction. It is an emotional attitude. Intellectual calculations are not involved in the want itself, although they are utilized when it comes to the consideration of how the want may be satisfied. To want is to desire; it is to feel dissatisfaction and to long for satisfaction.¹

¹ The word "want" is defined in the dictionary as synonymous with deficiency, defeat, destitution, lack, failure, dearth, scarcity, need, poverty. But as used here the meaning of the term will be restricted to wishing or longing for, desiring, or craving. It will be employed in the sense that a little child uses the word when he says, "I want to" or "I don't want to." The term "urge" conveys the same idea of force or impulse which is present in want but not sufficiently the idea of desire. "Wish," on the

Dormant and Conscious Wants.—If the reader will attempt to hold his breath for one minute he will gain a clearer conception of what the writer means by dormant and conscious wants than he can by reading many sentences of explanation. When one starts to hold his breath he has no conscious want for air. After a few seconds he becomes conscious of such a desire. As time goes on this want becomes stronger and stronger, changing from utter indifference to slight discomfort and then agony, with a final gasp for breath. A dormant want is here aroused to full consciousness and its driving impulsive force is well exhibited.

A want is not a constant factor. It is always fluctuating from zero strength toward maximum potency. So three times a day man experiences a want to eat, and after eating he ceases to want to eat for a time. If the meal is delayed, the want becomes greater, and if no food is obtained for several days then the want becomes so intense that practically every other consideration is forgotten in the intense striving to satisfy it. So also the desire is occasionally felt to go swimming, or to dance, or go to the

other hand, emphasizes desire, particularly intellectually conceived desire, but implies, as also does "longing," a present inability to act as desired. "Want" as used here implies "desire" plus "impulse" to act in accordance with the desire so that existing dissatisfaction will be changed to satisfaction. To restrict its meaning further, "want" is not here used as synonymous with "need," which is conceived of as referring to that which is necessary on other grounds than the mere elimination of present dissatisfaction.

The term "satisfaction" cannot be defined. However, illustrations can make it abundantly clear; it is what one experiences as one eats when hungry, or as one stretches out in bed when tired, or as one thrills to the sound of a military band, or as one relaxes before a fire on coming in from the cold, etc. It is quite possible that when we come to know more about the nature of a human being we shall find that dissatisfaction arises because of a lack of chemical equilibrium and that satisfaction is expressed when such chemical equilibrium is obtained.

Lack of satisfaction may be due to two different conditions. There may be lacking some stimulus which, if present, would bring satisfaction; *e.g.*, food when hungry. Or there may be present some disturbing stimulus which causes positive dissatisfaction; *e.g.*, heat. In the first case the organism seeks the desired stimulus; in the second case the organism avoids the disturbing stimulus. Until either end is accomplished there is continued activity (unless exhaustion intervenes): when either is accomplished satisfaction is experienced, succeeded by a state of relative rest.

movies, or to read, or to do some particular job which holds especial interest. At a particular moment a real craving for certain actions may be felt; a little later there is no such desire.

It is, accordingly, necessary to think of any want as having zero strength at one moment and considerable strength at another time. As a want increases in strength from zero a point is reached when it becomes conscious. While below the "threshold of consciousness" the want may and often does influence behavior. The unconscious want for air causes rhythmical breathing day and night. Unconscious want for food may cause loss of interest in work, restlessness, or headache, before it reaches sufficient strength to be consciously noted. When the want becomes clearly conscious it manifests itself in desire and the demand for a change in the environment.

A woman is not always able to tell you just what she wants—but she is quite likely to know it when she sees it! That is why women are such shoppers; they go from store to store to get the style details, the quality, the price they want. They do not have these points all analyzed and tabulated in their own minds when they start looking, but when they find an article that meets these unexpressed, but none the less real, requirements, the shopping is over and buying begins.¹

This fact that wants are dormant, unconscious a great deal of the time, is too often overlooked. A man who loves his wife very much may not have her in mind when an insurance agent calls, and so be absolutely uninterested in providing for her comfort in case of his death. And this is true even though he grant that the need exists. But once he is really feeling his love for her the proposition is far harder to dismiss, if he can do it at all. In the same way a man might have a headache and yet not be thinking of it as he turned over the pages of a magazine while waiting for his wife. But if his eye fell on the Sanatogen advertisement (Fig. 2) he would become conscious of the headache and soon feel it worse than usual. Regardless of what a man is known to want and to be striving to get, it is poor policy to assume he will be aware of that want when a salesman calls or an advertisement is seen. The first function is to make sure that the want is felt.

¹ ARDERY, LOIS, "She Wants It But She Doesn't Know It—Yet!" *J. Walter Thompson News Bulletin*, December, 1924.

Native and Acquired Wants.—A new-born babe will cry when he becomes uncomfortable. When given the breast he sucks and shortly falls asleep. He has experienced a want and it has been satisfied. After a time he associates his mother with satisfaction and so comes to want her. What he fundamentally wants is the satisfaction that is experienced when he gets milk into his stomach. Milk is a means to this and so also is his mother.

Man is so constituted that he very quickly comes to include in any want the object that he uses to satisfy the craving. So the child comes to want his milk and his mother. He does not think of the milk as a means to the satisfying of his bodily craving but as wanted itself.

The distinction between the bodily craving and the object employed to satisfy the craving is an important one. For example, throughout life the bodily craving for food, called hunger, will appear periodically. But the individual may cease to eat any particular food. Relatively few adults desire milk. They cease to want it because other objects have been substituted for it. *Fundamentally speaking, objects are not desired: what is desired is to satisfy certain cravings.* All objects that are wanted represent secondary or acquired wants. The individual has learned to want them. Later on he may cease to want them. But the native wants always are felt in the appropriate situations, except that some of them disappear in sickness or in old age.

A fundamental want is one that is irreducible, that is wanted just because it is wanted. The want to rest and sleep when fatigued is a fundamental one; so also are the wants to be active, except when fatigued; to run and hide when threatened; to be interested in the opposite sex; and the like. A secondary want is one that is desired in order to secure some other want. Strictly speaking, a sweetheart is a secondary want. She is desired because she satisfies certain bodily cravings. But as already stated one tends to overlook this distinction, one comes to want the sweetheart herself, and, furthermore, one comes to want many objects because they are means to getting the sweetheart. One even comes to want extra work and hardship as a means to obtain objects which will be in turn means of obtaining approbation from the girl and so eventually lead to obtaining the girl herself and the final satisfaction.

A native want may be thought of then as a sort of craving, while an acquired want always is concerned with some object. As just stated, a want for milk or a particular sweetheart is acquired. Man is born with certain cravings which are to be satisfied by these objects.

How acquired wants for objects are developed will be considered in Chap. XI. In this and the next chapter the discussion will center around the nature of man's native wants or cravings.

Man Wants to Eat.—This is the best understood of all of man's wants. When he gets hungry—when the want reaches a certain strength—he wants objects that have a certain taste and odor. Natively man knows nothing of calories or vitamins, nor does he ever really want such things. He wants what tastes and smells good.

Man Wants to Hunt.—Man certainly gets far more satisfaction out of hunting and fishing than can be explained in terms of what he brings home and the hardships endured.

There is a pronounced sex difference with respect to this want. Women, as a whole, care little about hunting and fishing. And their slight tendency in this direction is inhibited very often because they cannot endure to see the suffering of a deer, a rabbit, or even a fish.

Advertisers quite generally depict hunting scenes in connection with firearms and camping equipment. A recent advertisement of Carnation Milk showed a man cooking supper over a campfire in the woods. The heading, "Take it with you to the woods," leads the reader to the copy, "Check the grub list carefully, making sure you have included plenty of Carnation Milk," etc. Such hunting and camping appeals might be used much more extensively than at present, for millions of men and a smaller number of women are genuinely interested in them. Use of the want is illustrated in Fig. 8.

Man Wants to Acquire, Collect, and Possess.—It is a debated point whether man natively has a want to acquire and possess objects. William James wrote in his "Talks to Teachers," that the "depth and primitiveness of this instinct would seem to discredit in advance all radical forms of communistic utopia. Private property cannot be practically abolished until human nature is changed." On the other hand, Tausig¹ wrote, "I

¹ TAUSIG, F. W., "Inventors and Money-makers," p. 81, 1915.

am skeptical of the existence of an instinct of ownership as such; and at all events I am very doubtful whether this plays any special part in the psychology of the business man." Most are agreed, however, that man wants to collect, that is, to secure a number of objects all about alike, such as, pebbles, cigar tags, postage stamps, nuts, paper dolls, books, and the like.

There is no question but that man wants to own things. But that can be explained on the basis that through owning them he can control them and so use them whenever he desires. If man instinctively wanted to possess everything he encountered then objects would be sought just in order to be possessed. The writer does not believe this is the case. Objects are valued only as they make it possible for the owner to satisfy some want. When they cease to do this they lose all value (see Chap. XI for further discussion of this point).

Analysis of the desire for possession will show that there is a greater emotional want in most cases for what has been owned a long time than for something new, and particularly for objects that are small and have been handled a great deal or that represent a good deal of effort in the getting of them. A householder will lose \$100 in a business deal and feel very little loss as compared with that experienced when a neighbor's dog kills one of his chickens. And when a home is burned the feeling of loss is more apt to center upon the destruction of certain objects in the house than upon that of the building itself, although the latter means a greater financial loss. Similarly in the purchase of a house, interest is often more keenly aroused by trees than by the house and lot as a whole. Employers have largely overlooked this principle in bestowing group insurance upon their employees. The fact that a man's wife will receive \$1,000 when he dies is an abstract thing, far removed from daily affairs. It cannot make the appeal that comes from possession of a fine document (not a cheaply printed slip of paper) which stands for the abstract service. And all this is increased materially in value if, each year as the amount of insurance is increased, coupons are supplied. The more often the document is handled the more intrinsic value there develops in the whole proposition.

Man Wants to Escape from Pain and Suffering.—We are all so familiar with the want to escape the pain of a cut or burn

or toothache that there is no need to discuss it. Yet appeals in terms of this want are not used as frequently as they might be. For example, in an advertisement of O'Sullivan's Heels, the heading is, "Everyone knows the danger, but do you get the right protection?" and the copy:

Eighty million Americans wearing them today! Seventy-nine out of every hundred men and women have learned the dangers of going without them.

There has been a national awakening to the perils of fatigue. The millions of wearers of rubber heels—some consciously, some unconsciously—are all seeking protection for the nervous system against the shocks that exhaust it.

Protection—that's what a rubber heel is made for. Do yours perform that vital function?

That does not make a man want rubber heels or anything else. Words like "fatigue," "protection," "shock," and "exhaust" are not so good as are "jar," "sore," "suffered," "discomfort," contained in the following letter which appeared in the same advertisement in a box to the left of the copy above.

"It is now 3 o'clock in the afternoon," a New York business man wrote. "My whole left side is jarred and sore. I evidently got my shoes mixed this morning. On my right foot is a shoe with an O'Sullivan's Heel attached. On the left foot is a shoe with one of the old leather heels. I have suffered the greatest possible discomfort all day. The contrast has brought out the tremendous saving to the nervous system which is made possible by O'Sullivan's Heels!"

This letter represents the buyer's point of view, it portrays the want that is satisfied by the product and that causes the product to be valuable to him. The main copy represents the seller's point of view, his interest in the enormous sale of his product and a far-away, abstract discussion of fatigue.

(Proper use of this appeal appears in Figs. 2, 36, and 38.)

Health.—Appeals to health are not identical with appeals to escape pain and suffering. Few go to a dentist until they feel pain and practically none go to a doctor until they have to. Frankly, as long as health exists it is ignored. But when it is threatened or lost, it is sought most eagerly. Logically, health is the positive state, sickness the negative aspect. ♣ But, psycho-

logically, the reverse is true. People will not buy medicine or anything else to keep well, but they will buy to get well. The patent medicine advertiser knows this, but a good many other advertisers overlook it because they do not have an immediate check upon the efficiency of their appeals. The writer does not mean that advertising of products which eliminate pain and bring health should all be doleful and unpleasant. Recall that there are three aspects to a want. Such advertising can play up how bad a man feels, or how good he is going to feel, or why he feels bad and how he can feel better. Judicious mixture of the three will make possible a great variety of advertisements, many of which can be most hopeful, enthusiastic, and pleasant.

Interest in health is acquired and can never be so strong as the positive want to escape pain and suffering. Health appeals have the greatest effect when directed to women in terms of protecting their loved ones from harm. Everyone is familiar with the mother who will not allow her children to eat some indigestible food, when she will eat it herself in their absence without a thought of consequences. Her concern for their welfare is the cause of interest in health, but having no such native interest in her own welfare she disregards health appeals as applied to herself, as long as she is well (see Figs. 37 and 46).

Man Wants to Escape When Frightened.—When frightened, man wants to escape, and runs if possible. Under certain conditions, however, he does not run but becomes immobile, paralyzed. This is the sort of response often seen made by a covey of small partridges when suddenly flushed. A third response to a fearful situation is fighting back. This occurs only when one is cornered. The emotion of fear is present in such cases, not anger. And a fourth possible response is collapse with terror, or in milder form, trembling.

Fear is associated with the stopping of whatever one is doing and flight. It is invoked by parents in teaching children not to do things. But children and adults can very seldom be induced to use initiative or do anything of a constructive nature through fear.

The folly of trying to sell a man by frightening him is discussed later. But it ought to be apparent that when a man is scared and thinks he must buy in order to escape, he will buy only

enough to get away and later will try to repudiate the order, if he can.

Man Wants to Avoid Disgusting Objects.—Objects that taste or smell bad or feel slimy cause disgust. Associated with this emotion are the reflexes to spit out, to retch, to turn away. Because these are so intense, one experience is sufficient to make a lasting impression.

In a recent advertisement of an incinerator the contrivance was prominently displayed alongside of the old garbage can in all its filth and with many rats about it. The most natural reaction would be to turn away in disgust. If the incinerator was noticed it would in all probability be remembered unpleasantly, just the reverse of what was desired. Because disgust is so strong, only a hint is necessary to make the reader smell and see his old garbage can; it does not need to be displayed in detail.

Appeals in terms of disgust are useful particularly in sanitary campaigns. McCann utilized this appeal in his campaign, in New York City years ago, against the use of rotten eggs in bakeries. But disgust, like fear, is an emotion that causes a person to stop and get away. Consequently, care must be taken that it does not become associated with the remedy but only with the old procedure.

Cleanliness is in many respects the absence of disgust. So much has been made of cleanliness that there is no doubt it is a strong appeal. The writer believes, however, that most of its strength is derived from the native desire to escape anything disgusting and also the direct pleasure in what is beautiful and attractive to the eye. The potency of all this is increased by the pressure of public opinion. Nearly everyone will make a fuss over a speck in the water at a hotel, or dirt on the meat platter, but will drink out of a rusty tin can at a farm pump or eat meat, cooked over a campfire, that has dropped into the fire at least once. That's how much the average human being really cares for sanitation, and cleanliness as such! Any one still skeptical of this view should watch children and note how often they show any desire to be clean. If their dirty condition did not hurt their parents' educated beliefs they would not wash their faces or hands or take a bath or change their clothes at all. A good share of the credit for present standards of cleanliness is due to

soap manufacturers and others who have financially profited by raising standards of living.

Man Wants to Be Doing Something All the Time.—The food man eats is transformed during the process of digestion into certain chemicals which are employed in replacing worn-out tissues and as sources of energy for muscular work. Apparently, the presence of stored-up energy causes a desire for activity in order to use up these chemicals. What particular activity results depends upon other factors to be considered below, but there will always be some activity present.

Consequently, man's body is in constant movement. Talking, whistling, chewing, knitting, whittling, playing with a necklace, afford energy outlets and give thereby some satisfaction, aside from other considerations. Similarly, play affords satisfaction, whether it is tag, baseball, tennis, swimming, driving an auto, or solitaire.

All this is true except when man is sick or exhausted, then, as is so apparent in children, he becomes inattentive and loses interest in all forms of activity.

This almost constant desire for physical activity, this sheer enjoyment of being alive and active, explains to a large extent why most amusements are indulged in, although it does not explain why any one is pursued in preference to any other one.

Rest and Sleep.—There is scarcely any need to point out that what has just been stated holds true only for a certain period of time and that then man ceases to be active and desires to rest and later to sleep. Undoubtedly, the chief cause for the want to sleep is the need to recuperate from activity, but the entire explanation of sleep is not yet known.

Avoidance of Exertion.—Some have pictured man as naturally lazy and ever seeking an easier way, and as desirous of escaping any drudgery and exertion rather than enjoying activity for its own sake. There is some truth in this view. As man grows older he has less and less surplus stored-up energy. And because of his occupation he uses his muscles so little that they become flabby and so fatigue easily. But the primary cause of his being lazy, as is said, is that he has found other activities of a less strenuous nature which interest him more than those of a more active sort. However, when he wants to he can exert himself

exceedingly, as on a hunting trip, and call it great sport. When the work a man can do is calculated it is tremendous. A 180-pound man does the equivalent of lifting 450 tons 1 foot when he climbs out of Grand Canyon, not counting the work performed in transporting his body horizontally seven miles. Yet he may grumble a good deal at walking a few blocks or at carrying out the ashes. When a man wants to do anything energy is forthcoming, and when he does not want to, there apparently is no energy available.

Manipulation.—A special phase of the desire for activity in general is the want to handle, to manipulate that of which man is made aware through the sense organs. So when buying nails, a person is better satisfied if he can pick up one of them, although he may have done so thousands of times, than if they are tied up by the clerk out of reach.

The salesman knows that the prospect will play with a model, or handle samples, when his interest could be obtained in no other way. But all salesmen do not appreciate that if the prospect is still manipulating the model when they attempt to close, the interest in playing with it is a serious interference to their remarks; whereas, if the model is out of reach but still appealing to the prospect's desire to handle it, it serves as an additional stimulation toward buying.

Man Wants Emotional Excitement.—When man runs from a wild animal he experiences the emotion of fear, when he views this same animal in the zoo he experiences the emotion of wonder, and when he has shot it in the woods he experiences the emotion of elation. It is probably not technically correct to say that man natively wants to experience emotion, but he certainly very soon learns to dissociate the emotion from the accompanying activities and to seek the emotion for its own sake.

The experiencing of emotion is usually pleasant. Even in fear, worry, and other unpleasant emotions, a small degree is enjoyable. Children like to work themselves up over an approaching ragman whom they view as a kidnapper. Much of the enjoyment of reading novels, or attending a movie, or going to a fire, or even chatting with friends comes from emotional thrills of all sorts. Apparently, a great number of people get much of

their amusement in this way—not in doing things—but in experiencing emotions aroused through reading, day-dreaming, and being with people.

The great masterpieces of art, whether in literature, music, painting, sculpture, or architecture, all arouse emotion. They arouse, however, not the baser forms but the highest and loftiest manifestations. And it is because of this they live. As will be seen in later pages this is just what successful advertising is more and more accomplishing.

Nature of Emotion.—Cannon¹ tells us that under the influence of the emotions of fear and rage the heart beats more rapidly, the blood pressure rises, and breathing becomes deeper and also more rapid. The blood is driven out of the entire digestive system to the heart, lungs, brain, and muscles through the contraction of the blood vessels in the digestive system, and their dilation, particularly in the muscles. Sweat may break out on the skin, thereby preparing the body for rapid elimination of heat and waste products following excessive muscular activity. Such changes constitute the fundamental basis of an emotion. But the mechanism is even more complicated. There are two small glands, situated near the kidneys, called the adrenal glands. They also are stimulated. And they pour into the blood-stream a chemical called adrenalin. This chemical affects the various internal organs directly. It stimulates the heart to greater activity; it causes the blood vessels in the stomach and intestines to contract and those in the muscles to dilate; it causes the stored up sugar in the liver to be poured into the blood to be used as fuel for the working muscles; it eliminates consciousness of fatigue; and it even goes so far, apparently, as to put the blood in such condition that it will clot more rapidly than usual if the body is wounded.

What man experiences when emotionally excited is the sum total of the consciousness of all these bodily changes. And apparently whether he is excited because of fear, rage, or love, the body is prepared for the maximum expenditure of muscular activity.

¹ CANNON, W. B., "Bodily Changes in Pain, Hunger, Fear and Rage," 1915.

The above constitutes what might be called the physiological side of emotion; the psychological or conscious side is hardly understood at all. But it is clear that the conscious differences between fear, rage, and love cannot be explained as Cannon has described emotion; there are other elements that must be included.

In the normal course of events a person's emotional excitement is worked off as fast as it arises. Only when he is interfered with so that he cannot act naturally does he particularly feel emotion. When so interfered with the individual becomes "pent-up" with emotion, becomes like an anarchist's bomb already to explode. Sooner or later this aroused energy will be discharged. So the employee who has been called down by the boss lets fly at a fellow-employee, or at the newsboy on the street, kicks the cat on the porch, or complains about the "tough" steak for dinner. If he has a long walk home this pent-up emotion may, on the other hand, be gradually discharged during the walk, and he may reach home in a calm frame of mind, with renewed determination to make good in the eyes of his executive.

Appeals to emotions interest the prospective buyer, unless their purpose is too plainly apparent. And as the prospect becomes more and more emotionally absorbed he actually becomes more and more pent up. Consequently, he is more likely to act at the close than at the beginning, for adrenalin is now in his blood. This is the psychological explanation of how many public speakers sway their audiences and secure pledges and money, often for objects that the members of the audience would ordinarily ignore.

Man Wants to Be Seeing, Hearing, Smelling, Tasting, or Feeling All the Time.—To sit still in a dark room where one cannot see, hear, smell, or taste anything and can feel very little is unpleasant and becomes increasingly so as time goes on; unless one is ready to go to sleep. For here there is a minimum of stimulation affecting the sense organs. The desire for sensory stimulation affecting the sense organs, is the primary basis for our enjoyment of color, form, design, of beauty in general, of music, of the feeling of smoothness and of various odors and tastes.

These sensations may be very beneficially appealed to in advertising. Even the pleasure in hearing, though off-hand it

would seem impossible to arouse by a printed advertisement, can be realized. J. W. Egbert reported such a case years ago in *Printers' Ink*. An advertisement of anvils had not "pulled" particularly well. Two additional lines were added after a time and the change was apparently responsible for the sale of 600 anvils. The two lines were:

Strike the anvil, give it a ring,
Hear the tone of church-bells ring.

Blacksmiths judge an anvil by its ring and these two lines made them hear imaginatively a good anvil. This is an illustration of appealing to man's desire for sensory stimulation in a very appropriate manner. Van Raalte's silk underwear is advertised with a cut and the phrase "because you love nice things." Because man enjoys beautiful objects, automobile makers devote a great deal of attention to the appearance of their product, and sales are often made on the basis of looks and not upon that of the engine or construction of the car.

Man wants not only stimulation, but he wants constant change and variety. Attention cannot be directed toward the same stimulus for more than a very few seconds, then man must turn to something else, either to stimulation from a new object or to a new combination of stimulations in the object being attended to. (Try looking at any one word on the page for a minute and see what happens.) Accordingly, man's interest is best maintained when the object he is attending to is constantly changing. Objects that supply such changes are interesting, if for no other cause. So a man digging a ditch, or a window-dresser in a store, or a dog crossing the street is watched in preference to still objects. Combinations of color, rhythms, melodies, sharp contrasts, are singled out because they provide a variety of stimulation.

Possibly, the most pleasing effect from sensory stimulations comes when these are in rhythmical order. Melody everyone enjoys; but man has to learn to enjoy harmony. And in design the rhythmical repetition of several elements in a border is more interesting than a haphazard arrangement. This is one of the reasons for the enjoyment of poetry and for the ease with which advertising jingles are memorized.

Man Wants a Certain Amount of Mental Activity.—Man is not only interested in sensory stimulation, but also in elaborating

these stimulations into various combinations. So the noises made by two Chinamen are preferred to silence, but not to the conversation of two Americans, for in the latter case the various noises are combined into complicated ideas. But although a man enjoys elaborating what he sees, hears, smells, and feels into new units, he does not want to go very far in such activities. He likes to sit on the porch with two or three friends and discuss the people that pass. He never naturally makes a real study of these people with respect to any trait. He may interest himself a little in new inventions or new theories but he loses interest as soon as he has added a little new information to his old stock. And probably the "new" that he assimilates is not much more than a new way of organizing his old views. More than that would involve study, would be viewed as work not play.

Individuals differ greatly with respect to their want for mental exercise. Many are easily satisfied, others seek activities requiring a certain amount of thought as in bridge, checkers, chess, literary societies, etc. A few choose a profession such as law or medicine or teaching where they may continue to learn all through life. But to most people study has become a lost art by the age of twenty-five. One form of mental activity common to nearly every one is day-dreaming. This requires a minimum of effort, as the day dreams are merely rearrangements of one's existing stock of ideas.

Because of man's native mental equipment, he naturally analyzes objects into their parts and also synthesizes parts into a whole. So some employment managers come in time to distinguish between the various nationalities they handle. Their knowledge has been acquired without any real effort through analyzing and synthesizing what they see every day. Often after acquiring a considerable fund of information in this rather unwitting manner, they become very much interested in the subject and then proceed to study it in a systematic manner.

There seems to be also a desire on the part of all to secure harmony among the mental processes. Inconsistencies that are called to the attention are annoying, and frequently cause real thinking in order to reconcile them (see Fig. 9). From such efforts arise systems of philosophy and theological explanations of the universe.

Curiosity.—That phase of mental activity called curiosity deserves special attention. A curious person pays attention with a wondering attitude, which leads to more or less continuous examination. He shows no curiosity about a new object or an old one. The typical response to a new object is to ignore it. The average person never discovers automatic sprinkler heads in a building, nor styles of architecture exemplified in houses, nor symptoms of disease in the faces of passersby. On every hand are thousands of things to see, but because they are new, unfamiliar, they are not seen. On the other hand, an old, familiar object is hardly noticed, as a scar on a friend's face. To familiar objects there is an established habit of reacting, and response is made in that way with little thought of the object itself, of the response, or of why there is any reaction at all.

When a *new combination of old familiar things* is met, what is called curiosity is experienced. The recent announcement of four-wheel brakes illustrates the point. Wheels and brakes were familiar, but brakes on front wheels presented a new combination. Once they had been seen, the novelty was gone. A cat that barked at a meowing dog would arouse great curiosity and would be a gold mine for a sideshow. Probably no advertisement has been more discussed in its day than the one showing the statue of Venus de Milo with the heading, "If Venus had arms." The novelty of the combination is striking, as is also the heading, "When Maude Adams got lost in the desert." Everyone knows something about the actress and about deserts but has never associated them together. The idea arouses curiosity.

"Appeal to curiosity," is a shibboleth of very doubtful value because men differ so greatly as to what things arouse this emotion. If for this phrase was substituted one such as, "Present a new combination of the prospect's pet ideas," many indifferent selling schemes would be eliminated.

Man Wants to Overcome Interference.—Whenever interference is experienced, more energy is immediately exerted to overcome the interference and to continue what has been checked. This fact is illustrated in cutting the lawn. The easiest and most sensible thing would always be to stop as soon as a snag is encountered and to remove the obstacle from the

lawn mower. But that is not what is ordinarily done. Instead, the lawn mower is instantly pushed harder than before and, if that is not successful, it is pushed harder and harder. The natural desire is to cut the stick in two rather than to inhibit all activity in this direction. If a small child is caught and firmly held, he will immediately struggle to escape. If he succeeds, he feels elated; if he fails, he quickly becomes angry and starts crying. By letting his hand slip and then holding it firmly one can cause delight and anger alternately to appear on his face.

Even in the most trivial occurrences of daily life this principle holds true. If a man is checked in walking along the street even just a little, he does not like it. Almost everyone has at least once "accidentally" stepped on another's heel in order to get even. A glance of irritation is frequently seen to flash across a person's face when someone else gets into an elevator ahead of him. The principle is frequently employed in selling. For example, a real estate salesman explains that the house is probably already sold but he'll see if he can get it. The fact that the prospect may not be able to get it makes him want it all the more. This stunt is used extensively in selling life insurance. After talking awhile the salesman says, "But maybe you can't pass the physical examination," and discusses the fact that many men do fail. Then in a moment or two he says, "Before spending any more of your time and mine in discussing this subject let's see if you can pass the examination. If you can't that ends the matter. If you can, then we can go into the matter further." Apparently, many a man who has little or no desire to buy insurance will submit to an examination at this point. And once having passed the examination he has practically agreed to take the policy.

Fighting.—Man fights when he is interfered with sufficiently and the individual opposing him is not too large. Anger and fighting may be viewed as an extreme form of irritation and of the release of energy caused by the interference of another party. When a man cannot fight back because of physical inferiority or because some other advantage may be lost, the emotional states of resentment, hatred, jealousy, or revenge may arise. These are among the most deplorable aspects of behavior.

Reflex Action.—Man has a large number of automatic and invariable responses called reflexes. Such responses are so

quick that usually the action is completed before the individual is really conscious of it. Actually, man gets his hand off a hot stove before he has felt the pain. He starts to regain his balance before he knows he has slipped on a banana peel. He has no want in any conscious sense here, for his lower nerve centers have initiated the reflex action before he becomes conscious of the cause. But if for any reason, he is prevented from acting, a very strong want to act is immediately felt. In church, an itchy sensation can become most intolerable, just because decorum forbids relief.

One of the strongest of the reflexes is the breathing process, discussed at the beginning of the chapter. Another reflex, or rather group of reflexes, has to do with the bodily adjustment to temperature. When the external temperature is too low or too high remarkable changes take place within the body in order to conserve the bodily heat or to give off heat particularly through perspiration. Wants for clothing, shelter, warmth in winter, and coolness in summer arise because of the necessity of maintaining a bodily temperature of 98.6 degrees Fahrenheit.

The writer has endeavored to give in this and the next chapter what he considers are the fundamental wants of man. The aim has been to present the matter very simply and from an applied point of view. To do this it has been necessary to consider one want at a time. The inference should not be drawn, however, that man is made up of so many separate wants. Man is essentially a unity: his wants must be viewed as merely aspects of his total personality. In very exceptional cases he may possibly act in terms of one want, but ordinarily he is acting in terms of all of them, or at least in terms of a considerable number of them.

Questions

1. Of what practical significance is it that a prospect's wants may be dormant?
2. Can an object be natively wanted? Explain.
3. What are the native wants that cause interest in "health," in "cleanliness?"
4. What native wants listed in this chapter are aroused in the advertisements in Figs. 2 to 26? In answering this question, disregard the copy but consider headings and illustrations.
5. Do the native wants that are aroused in the above advertisements help sell the advertised goods in every case? Explain.

6. Make a collection of advertisements: (a) that arouse the native wants listed in this chapter; (b) that do not arouse native wants but that would be made more effective by doing so.

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CHAPTER X

MAN'S NATIVE SOCIAL WANTS

In addition to the native wants listed in the preceding chapter there are a number of other wants possessed by man which are chiefly concerned with his relations with others. These social wants are frequently grouped under the headings of gregarious, sex, and parental instincts. But the activities included under that of gregariousness are so varied that they may well be considered separately.

Man Wants to be with Others.—All authorities agree that man is a gregarious animal in the sense that he finds satisfaction in just being with others, and becomes restless and uneasy when alone. Solitary confinement is a severe punishment, because it keeps the prisoner from the satisfaction of this native want.

The fundamental explanation of man's want to be with others of his kind seems to the writer to be found in man's want for emotional activity. When man is with others he is almost certain to be emotionally aroused, whereas when he is alone he must resort to artificial stimulants such as liquor, drugs, novels, day-dreaming, and the like.

Man apprehends the emotional state of another because of that person's facial expression, cries, and general behavior. And always the sight of such emotion in another arouses emotion in the observer. This feeling may be of similar nature to that observed, as when one smiles at another's mirth, or feels sentimental when lovers kiss. On the other hand, the observer's emotion may be quite different from that displayed in the one observed. Thus, the sight of a child crying from fright arouses not fear but parental anxiety in the adult observer.

The desire to be emotionally stimulated by being with others forms the background in a sense, to much of man's behavior. Much of the drift from isolated farm life to the crowded districts of a city or from domestic service to work in a busy store or

cannery, is to be explained on this basis. All other wants, moreover, are intensified when man is with his kind. The typical crowd at the beach, at a picnic, assembled to witness a parade, at the theater or dance, can be aroused to a high pitch of enjoyment because the emotion of each one intensifies that of every other.

Some few persons, on the contrary, exhibit a desire to get away from others. Often this can be explained as due to the individual's being "fed up" with society or being engaged in some activity in which he does not want to meet interference.

Man Wants to Watch Others.—A corollary of the want to be with others is that to watch others. When not actively engaged everyone loves to be where he can see what others are doing. Tenants gladly pay more for an apartment fronting on the street than for one which may overlook a wide expanse of country but has no close-up view of human beings. The ditch-digger or sign-painter always has his audience, and the larger the crowd the more newcomers just have to see what is there. It is because of all this that advertising illustrations depicting action are more interesting than those that may show the article beautifully but only as a "still life" subject.

Man Wants to Be Noticed by Others.—Man wants to be seen, and seen as a human being and not as a piece of furniture. If he is not noticed, he feels uncomfortable and tends to dislike those who are neglecting him and to move about so as to attract attention. In rural districts everyone speaks and expects to be spoken to. In the cities so many people are met that one is pretty well satisfied without casual greetings, yet when a man enters a room full of people he is slightly worried until someone has nodded, or given him a chair, or done something to notice him.

The fact that everyone experiences this annoyance would suggest that all should take care not to occasion annoyance in others. One fundamental of good service should be, accordingly, that all engaged in meeting others should acknowledge their arrival by an immediate nod or statement to the effect that "I'll be with you in a minute." This would hardly interfere with the work going on and would put newcomers at ease and eliminate the first possibility of friction. There is no question that many

railroad and public utility companies have lost vast sums because individual voters have not been treated as they would like to be treated. Many a labor problem became a problem because workmen missed just this man-to-man recognition when they met their executives.

Man Wants to Show Approval or Disapproval.—When someone performs any instinctive act of strength or daring, or rescues someone from fear, or relieves from hunger, or makes a gorgeous display, approval is shown instinctively by smiling, or staring in a respectful manner, or shouting encouragement.

On the other hand, evidences of physical weakness and meanness, emptyhandedness, deformity, and cowardice cause us to frown, hoot, and sneer.

Both of these instinctive responses are shown repeatedly at a baseball game. Often a crowd is seen to reverse itself within a few minutes, first hooting and yelling at a player for muffing an easy catch, and then cheering just as vociferously over the successful handling of a difficult one. The crowd secures as much satisfaction from one activity as the other.

Approval and disapproval are shown instinctively, it would seem, only toward actions of physical strength, daring, and the like, or their opposites. They are not shown natively toward manifestations of moral character or of good manners. Habits of approval and disapproval toward such behavior must be developed. They may, however, be developed with surprising ease, especially under the influence of a recognized leader. Even so, enthusiasm for intellectual and moral worth is rarely of as emotional and wholehearted a character as that accorded to physical skill and bravery. The poet or scientist or thorough-going gentleman receives no homage comparable to that accorded a Babe Ruth, a Jack Dempsey, a circus acrobat, or a hero in war.

Man Wants to Receive Approval and to Escape Disapproval.—Approval leads to the feeling of satisfaction, and the continuance of what is being done. Disapproval leads to dissatisfaction, the cessation of what is being done, and the tendency to do something else. For example, a professional ball-player, after having muffed an easy fly, was observed to adjust his cap three times, remove his glove and put it back on twice, spit on his glove four times, shift his position several times, pull up his trousers three

times, and make many minor movements, in response to the hooting of the crowd, to which he pretended not to pay any attention. A few minutes later he caught left-handed a high fly, and on walking back to his station made none of these movements, but merely smiled, squatted down, and remained quiet.

Although man wants approval, he does not want it from anyone he considers beneath him, unless it is expressed in a humble manner. So a pat on the back would never be accepted from a bootblack, although it is enjoyed immensely when coming from the "boss." An example of what is called lack of tact is showing approval of a superior without at the same time expressing submission to his leadership.

Once a man commences watching his fellow men he sees many illustrations of their being swayed by the approval and disapproval of others though he may not realize that he himself is similarly affected. This situation is well described in one of the editorials of *Batten's Wedge*, as follows:

In northern cities it is customary for men to begin to wear straw hats on May 15, and not before. It is customary to discard straw hats on September 15. No matter what the weather is on September 16, straw hats are not worn.

Now, then, for what individuals say: Ask a thousand men about this, and nearly everyone will tell you that it is a silly custom, that he never pays the slightest attention to it, that he never follows any kind of a bellwether, and that he suits his apparel to the thermometer and not to the fool habits of a lot of clerks.

That's what the individuals will say.

But take a look at the streets. Nine out of ten men will be wearing straws on September 14 and about one in a hundred on September 16. Or ask the hat stores what the public's habits are. They will tell you . . .

Collective thought and collective action is not the sum of what a number of individuals deliberately and consciously do. It is something else.

Public opinion is in a large measure the unconscious opinion of people, and public action is largely the undeliberate action of people.

Consider the matter more in detail. A straw hat will sell for \$3.50 on May 15, and for \$1.75 on July 15. But on September 15, very few men in the United States would accept the same straw hat and \$10 bonus, all as a gift, if acceptance meant that the hat must be worn till October 15. What has occurred during these four months to cause such a depreciation in value? Clearly, there has been no change in the hat—it is still the same new

hat. But there has been a great change in the amount of satisfaction that can be gotten out of the hat. It may be expressed like this:

May 15—A hat + satisfaction, because of approval.

July 15—A hat.

September 15—A hat + dissatisfaction, because of disapproval.

When it is said that a commodity has "style" or "prestige," it is meant that whoever owns it will get a considerable amount of satisfaction from it because people will approve of him for having it. Rothschild¹ reports a case of the fostering of this idea of "prestige" in advertising an apartment house in New York City.

It was at a time when the demand for apartments of its class was not large, and it was necessary to make definite plans to secure tenants. The first plan that suggested itself was to run an advertising campaign in a newspaper whose circulation was mainly among well-to-do families. Then another plan was suggested, and finally decided upon—namely, to run the campaign in a paper that reached all classes. The purpose of this was, not to reach the prospective tenants themselves, but to create generally the impression that these \$12,000, \$15,000, and \$20,000 apartments were the finest in New York, and in this way to build up a sort of prestige which would give the apartments an added value with the type of prospect who was considered the most likely.

As it turned out, this was exactly what happened. The apartments became, in a sense, the talk of the town, and their reputation among those who could not afford them made them especially desirable to those who could.

It is literally true that what a man wears, thinks, and does is very largely controlled by what others about him wear, think, and do. Only the exceptional man deviates from the standards of the crowd, and then usually in but few respects. Today a person no longer responds only to the public opinion of neighbors but to the public opinion of millions whom he has never seen but whose point of view he has gotten through newspapers and magazines or over the radio. Not least of all the agencies that are molding opinion is advertising.

Workmanship.—Many writers have emphasized recently that man wants to create, wants to express himself through his work. For example, Whiting Williams, in his "What's on the Worker's

¹ ROTHSCHILD, R. C.: "Using 'Waste Circulation' to Sell the Product," *J. Walter Thompson News Bulletin*, August, 1922.

Mind," states, "From all that I have seen or heard all kinds of human beings do and say, it is safe to assert that every normal person possesses in the bottom of his heart the desire to find somewhere the satisfaction that comes with the consciousness of 'breaking through' . . . counting as something more than a cipher in the sum total of humanity." And again, "Every person is moved to do what he does by the universal itch to feel that somewhere on life's front he is justifying his existence among other persons by 'getting on.'"

To a certain extent this want may be a phase of the desire for approval. For example, a man makes an arrow for his son because of his love for the boy and the desire for his approval. If he does not use it, the father does not feel repaid for the trouble, even if he did do a good job. But if his wife shows appreciation, then again it seems to have been worth while. There is no native want to construct, to create, as such. If anything, it is to take apart, to destroy. But there is genuine satisfaction to be obtained from work, if someone will appreciate it, particularly if the appreciation comes from one who is loved or looked up to.

Man Wants to Dominate Others.—There are two types of leadership. One is purely negative. Here the individual shows resentment at interference, fighting back, sometimes quite vigorously. His chief want is to be let alone. (This was discussed in the preceding chapter.) In the other type of leadership, the person goes out of his way to make others bow down to him, to be submissive to him. And whenever he succeeds he secures satisfaction. The want to dominate is shown in a multitude of ways from the sheer physical domination of the bully to the subtle innuendo at a woman's bridge party.

When any two individuals meet, one of the following relationships is established:

A dominates B.

A submits to B.

A and B both struggle for domination.

A and B establish friendly relations.

A, preoccupied with other matters, does not notice B (or *vice versa*) and no relationship between the two is established. Here, however, B is left with a resentful feeling toward A.

Social conventions being what they are, the first three relationships are usually not obviously apparent. But introspectively, any one individual will realize the presence of all three relationships in his own case. And by watching two men meet, the relationship which has been established between them can often be told. This is shown by the way the head is carried, whether the eyes gaze ahead or drop, by the general carriage of the body, and by the increase or decrease in activity.

Domination of a native sort is accomplished usually in terms of superior *physical* size and strength. But sometimes the large man submits to a smaller one who shows superior quickness and dare-deviltry of action. Alexander the Great, Napoleon, and Nelson are examples of such natural leaders who were short of stature. The public *learns* to look up to and follow the intellectually superior man, but this is not done naturally unless he is superior physically also. Really to comprehend this the reader should contrast his own attitudes toward an insignificant looking man before and after he learns he is a famous physician.

E. H. Allport relates a story that is apropos. On one of Roosevelt's western speaking tours "he was shaking hands with the leading citizens when a huge cowboy approached with extended hand, and taking the President off guard, gave him a powerful grip that made him wince. After he had finished speaking Roosevelt happened to catch sight of the young westerner again. Offering his hand a second time to the surprised youth, he seized the initiative and gave him in return a squeeze that almost made him cry out with pain." A pretty illustration, this, of two powerful personalities, each struggling to dominate the other.

Statistical facts are lacking to determine whether all men possess this want to dominate others or not. Probably all have the desire but many are too handicapped by lack of physical prowess, good health, and intellectual activity to make any outward effort to control others. It is certain that many seem to care nothing for domination and shun all opportunity to lead except in some very restricted activity, such as checker playing or old-coin collecting. In between the two extremes of human beings—the dominating leader and the almost totally submissive follower—are the great majority of men and women. These

show domination where they can and submission the rest of the time.

Display.—Probably everyone resorts to display of some form in order to secure greater domination. Possession of anything the mass has not adds value to that thing because it helps the owner to feel superior to others and also leads others to look up to him. So poor grammar, improper eating habits, lack of membership in a fraternal order, wearing clothes out of style, etc., *ad infinitum*, are the grounds on which some are pushed down and others thereby elevated. And because no one likes to be pushed down, to be disapproved of, a great deal of attention is devoted to these "little" things and often they cause more worry than really important matters.

Rivalry is a definite form of domination. When angry there is the desire to injure or destroy another. But when a rival exists the desire is to dominate him and to enjoy the satisfaction of having him recognize one's superiority. Frequently, when the rival has bowed in submission surprising benevolence is shown him. Many people do not desire victory except when they have really won. Thus, in a game of chess one player will often insist that his opponent take back a move whereby the opponent's queen would be captured. The best form of rivalry is shown by many a scientist or an engineer who gives up his secrets as fast as he discovers them, desiring only the success, not the profit. This same spirit of rivalry is spreading rapidly among business men today.

Rivalry is so strong in most men that the satisfaction to be obtained from beating an opponent is sufficient to lead a man to strive diligently when he would not do so for mere financial return. The sales manager knows that a prize of small monetary value will produce greater returns than if each salesman were given that same value in the form of an increase in salary.

Posting the records of daily production where all can see them has often produced returns far in excess of what a bonus system will accomplish. Here a man may contend with his fellows and also with his own past record. A squad of workers may also be pitted against other squads. To feel that one is improving or that one is beating others is very sweet. In a sense every man is so contending openly or secretly with some others. And

if he cannot do so in the realm of his daily work he does so in some other connection, such as building up a Sunday school class, rising in position in his union, beating his crowd at poker, telling the rottenest stories, etc. The substitution of worth-while rivalries for inconsequential or vicious ones is one of the aims, or should be, of the school, the church, the press, the employer, and all leaders of society. The way to break up a bad gang of youths or a hostile group of employees is not to "bust" them, but rather to substitute some worth-while and interesting occupation for the undesirable activity.

Man Wants to be Submissive to, and Follow, a Leader.—

According to Thorndike, a submissive attitude is naturally assumed when a human being is met who is larger than oneself or of angry and mastering aspect. "When weak from wounds, sickness, and fatigue, the tendency is stronger. The man who is bigger, who can out-yell and out-stare us, who can hit us without our hitting him, and who can keep us from moving, does originally extort a crestfallen, abashed physique and mind."¹

In adult life submission is very apt to be shown to superiority of any kind, whether of physical size, of mental ability, of social standing, or of wealth and power. And this is done in response not only to real indications of these things but to anything that suggests them. So the loudly dressed man is submitted to or the occupant of a large auto, although the former may be a street-car motorman off duty and the latter may have squandered all his earnings for a ride.

The response to these stimuli seems to express itself in a slinking, crestfallen behavior, a general diminution of muscular tone, slow, retarded movements, a hanging-down of the head, and sidelong glances.

This instinct to be submissive to others is possibly the hardest of all to understand, just because no man likes to admit that he is submissive. But he is, and the most surprising part of it is that he obtains great satisfaction therefrom. Hero-worship is of this mode of behavior. That, man enjoys. So does he enjoy following a real leader, such as Roosevelt.

The more thoroughly the dominance of a leader is recognized the more blindly will any action of that leader be approved.

¹ THORNDIKE, E. L., *Educational Psychology*, vol. I, p. 92, 1913.

Such blind approval often leads to annoyance afterwards when it is realized that it was not in accord with customary standards. If the leader goes too far, so that approval cannot be shown, the individual may not be able to show disapproval, and so will keep quiet.

As a man is always submissive to the group to which he belongs, he always enjoys praise from it. But he may become most resentful if the same praise comes from a group upon which he looks down. This submissiveness of the individual to a group is one of the factors underlying cooperation, causing unity of action of all in the group. It is this principle that explains the strength of superstition, social etiquette, customs, the moral law, and ideals held by the group. To stand out against these ideals is to stand against the group, and usually to court disapproval. On the other hand, agreement gives man a sense of security and the sweet pleasure of being one with his kind.¹

Man Wants to Love an Individual of the Opposite Sex.—Observation of adults suggests very strongly that the sex instinct must be considered in terms of two levels—the purely physical level and the psychical level. On the physical level the characteristic responses are pursuit by the male and retreat of the female, followed by seizure and submission. James² emphasizes *coyness* in the female, calling it an anti-sexual instinct, which “has to be positively overcome by a process of wooing before the sexual instinct inhibits it and takes its place. As Darwin has shown in his book on the ‘Descent of Man and Sexual Selection,’ coyness has played a vital part in the amelioration of all higher animal types and is to a great degree responsible for whatever degree of chastity the human race may show.”

The psychical level pertains to the mental relations between individuals of the opposite sex who are in love. Due to coyness primarily and to social customs secondarily, the purely physical responses are inhibited until marriage. All manner of responses result, included under the term “courting.” Novelists and

¹ A. L. FILENE recounts (“A Merchant’s Horizon,” p. 147, 1924) that the efforts to establish industrial democracy in his department store have been thwarted by “the almost invincible timidity of many an employee in taking hold, in taking advantage of the opportunities . . . freely placed before him.”

² JAMES, W., “Psychology,” vol II, p. 437 ff., 1890.

poets have not yet listed all of these psychical sublimations of the physical tendencies of this instinct. Some writers assert that all of the aesthetic interests arise in this way. But it is going too far to assert that music, painting, sculpture, architecture, drama, literature, and all of the finer elements of life have no other cause for their development than the thwarting of the sex instinct. Nevertheless, such interests are powerfully motivated in this way. And so are the more unselfish traits, such as tenderness, courage, ambition, devotion, fidelity, and the like.

In addition to the physical and psychical levels, a third level may be postulated. This involves the parental instinct, in which the sex instinct is expressed through the parent's care and protection of the offspring. Whether children are born or not, either lover shows parental love to the other, especially when the other is sick, tired, or discouraged. When children are present, reactions to the children are intensified because of the parents' sex love for each other; and the parents' love for each other is both intensified and modified likewise because of their interest and service to the children. As women are endowed with a stronger parental instinct than men, there results a greater intermingling of the sex and parental instinct in wives and mothers than in husbands and fathers. And many a mother is found continuing to live with a brute of a husband because she cannot disentangle her old feelings for him from those toward the children. The absence of children does not prevent the highest development of physical and psychical attachment, but without question their presence does greatly promote the fullest development of true love and devotion.

Advertisers should realize that appeals to the physical aspect of the sex instinct will get attention without question but will lead only to such action as is in accord with man's selfish wants. It is only when the psychical aspect is aroused that man wants to do something for his wife, sweetheart, mother, or sister. To influence such action, women depicted in advertising should be of the type that men respect. And it is this same type of wholesome-looking women that appeals to women. All others are branded as "hussies" and correspondingly scorned.

There is an entirely different aspect of the sex instinct. A man is genuinely proud of his masculinity. He loathes being

called a "sissy." No man would use a device which would permanently remove his beard and so save him all the annoyance of shaving, even though he has not the slightest intention of ever raising a moustache or beard. And every man likes to think he has an exceptionally tough, wiry beard! Advantage can be taken of this general interest in masculinity in the advertising of most articles used and bought by men. And, conversely, one must expect men to refrain from buying articles that are too strongly stamped as feminine, and to seek men's furnishing stores in preference to department stores.

Man Wants to Love Children.—A parent naturally wants to notice, get hold of, fondle, and feed the baby, also to show delight in possessing it, pleasure at its expressions of happiness and concern over its expressions of unhappiness and distress. Part of the instinctive response is a general tendency to do things that will cause the child to show delight and to cease its cries.

As a rule, women and girls show more interest in babies than men and boys. Man's response is more in terms of feeding, protecting, and playing with babies and small children than in terms of taking care of them when sick or crying.

This want to protect one's own offspring is exhibited in a variety of other ways. Few men and fewer women can bring themselves to injure the young of any species. A gentleman recently related how he spent most of an afternoon locating a nest of mice in his pantry and when he found it, he played with the little ones for a few minutes and then found he couldn't kill them but had to call in a neighbor's boy to do it.

Although this want leads to far more altruistic conduct than does any other, yet sometimes it leads to actions that are undesirable. Many mothers cannot maintain a regular régime for their children because they want so much to please them and see them delighted and happy. Many men and women will give to a charitable cause that emphasizes the alleviation of suffering, but they will not give to an organization which devotes its energies to eliminating the conditions that cause the suffering. The same situation holds true within the home. Parents will spend all they have to cure a sick child but frequently will not spend a cent in preventing the child from getting sick. The former

situation arouses the parent's emotions, the latter does not—that is the explanation.

A typical illustration of appealing to the parental instinct in selling is quoted from an old issue of *Printers' Ink*.

I remember standing in a piano store and listening to a workingwoman as she talked to a salesman. The thing that she was saying was that she had had to work all of her life since she was sixteen years old, and her husband had had to work all of his life, and they hadn't had any advantages. They themselves had a daughter, Mary, and Mary was sixteen years old now. Times were better—they had money in the bank, and they were just going to buy a piano to make Mary a lady.

There was my fundamental for 150,000 workingmen and women in that city, and I went back to my desk and wrote till my fingers ached and the gist of it all was "To make Mary a lady," to give her the opportunities they had missed. I think I even forgot to mention the price, but we sold pianos from one end of the working district to the other, sold them because we were merchandising heart beats and not so many pounds of ivory and wire.

A Grinnell Company advertisement illustrates how one will become interested in a technical matter because of this parental instinct. The cut shows the president of a company standing at the left with his hand upon the shoulder of the old plant engineer who is seated. At the right are the production engineer and consulting engineer. As you read note how your sympathy is aroused because the plant engineer's boy is attacked, and how you rapidly come to dislike the production engineer. You become possessed of these attitudes because you cannot help but feel as the father does. The copy reads:

"Oh, that's the same old idea you sprang five years ago, Tom," said the president as he laid a friendly hand on the old engineer's shoulder. "I'm sorry, but the prize money for coal-saving suggestions *must* go to those whose ideas are more practical."

"But—" the old man started falteringly to explain, when the production manager cut in with, "Why, that idea came from his boy the year he was getting through Tech. That waste heat wouldn't generate an ounce of steam. The boy himself would laugh at it today."

"But my boy—" began the old man again.

"What was this college boy's idea?" interrupted the consulting engineer, who had consented to help in awarding the prize money.

"Well," began the president, with a curious mixture of boredom, impatience, and pity in his voice, "Tom here wants us to rig up our heating system to pick up heat all over the plant, from tempering furnace, steam vats, heat treating processes . . ."

"And he even wanted to connect up with the water jackets of our gas engines—" broke in the production manager, with a smile that just escaped being a sneer.

As much as he needed the prize money—as much as he valued his job—the old engineer couldn't restrain himself. They were really poking fun at his boy. He burst out with—

"My lad knows. He's been at heating now five years. He's smart. He's studied. He wouldn't tell me this could be done if it couldn't. He's—"

"Where's your boy located?" inquired the consulting engineer with an encouraging smile.

"He's with Grinnell Company," came the reply proudly, "an engineer."

"I'll bet you the best dinner in town you give Tom the prize money," said the consulting engineer as he turned to the president. "If a Grinnell engineer says he can pick up waste heat, he'll *pick it up*. In the Winton plant in Cleveland Grinnell Company heated a great building from the waste heat of gas engines."

"Why, it's nothing but a *theory*," countered the production manager. "How could you get up steam pressure when most of your jackets won't boil water?"

"No, but they will heat any amount of water for a forced hot water system. With Grinnell Company you get a system that is a fact—not a theory—and a fact they back with their guaranty."

"Tom, I guess you win," said the president. "Have your boy drop in to see me."

Nursing Care.—Small children desire to be petted and looked after and to be sympathized with. As they grow older they more or less grow out of this desire and seek rather to be independent and self-reliant. But probably all adults revert back to this infantile want when exhausted and particularly when sick. It is the testimony of women that when a masterful man has to give up and go to bed, he wants more attention than any woman or child.

Filial Love.—Most writers maintain that on the part of children towards their parents there is no instinctive response corresponding to the parental instinct. Children do have the parental instinct itself, though in weaker form, showing it towards dogs, cats, and dolls. This sentiment they show in some degree toward their parents. But they have relatively less opportunity because the parent does not often satisfy the ideal situation arousing this instinct, not being small, helpless, nor given to crying. Children show love most when the mother breaks down and cries, or when either parent is sick or in distress. If parents would have their children love them not only in childhood but in after life they

must provide opportunities whereby the child will begin serving them early in life and continue doing so as years go on.

Questions

1. What native social wants are aroused in the advertisements in Figs. 2-26?
2. Make a collection of advertisements that (*a*) arouse native social wants; (*b*) do not arouse such wants but that would be made more effective by doing so.
3. Obtain advertisements from current periodicals in which the arousal of some social want distracts the reader from the commodity advertised. The advertisements in Figs. 21 and 25 are examples.

References

See list at end of chap. IX.

CHAPTER XI

ACQUIRED WANTS

The world is not "geared up" so as to permit man to satisfy his native wants whenever they arise. He cannot satisfy his want to eat, for example, merely by reaching out and taking food and putting it into his mouth. He must first of all secure his food by some activity of field, farm, or market. Then the food must be prepared. Think of all the utensils used in the kitchen to cook food, the dishes used to serve it, and all the other accessories of napkin, table cloth, chairs! These objects man has learned to employ in connection with eating; and he views them now as necessary. But he could get along without most of them and he does, sometimes, when he picnics in the woods or when he is in the midst of moving into a new house.

Each of these objects which contributes directly or indirectly to eating, after a habit of using it has been established, is *wanted*, is viewed as necessary. It is really "impossible" in one's daily life to eat without dishes, knife, fork, spoon, napkins, and the like. But after all they are merely *means* to the *end* of eating. Each of these objects functions as a tool, or remedy, or solution, to a difficulty which is encountered when one wants to eat. Figuratively speaking, each is a way around, or bridge over, an obstacle.

Every object that is wanted, is wanted actually because it is a means of satisfying some native want.

But man does not view objects in this light. He does not analyze; he short-circuits the whole process; he just feels a want for the object itself. At the hotel he wants a fork; usually he is only conscious of that want, he does not justify it by thinking of the disapproval he would receive if people saw him eating with fingers or knife, or by thinking of the inconvenience of dirty fingers, or the like.

Steps in the Development of an Acquired Want—of a Wanted Object.—A personal experience illustrates the point. Sometime

ago I was driving my car along a fine dirt road, well graded, and recently dragged. Presently, I dropped down a slight grade, expecting to find a bridge ahead over a little stream. Instead, I discovered that the creek was to be forded. Slowing up, I plunged in only to come to a sudden stop, mired in the mud. The stop was so sudden that the engine stalled. Starting the engine, I tried going ahead, and then in reverse, but with no result other than that I sank deeper in the mud. Then I tried wrapping chains around the wheels, but that didn't help. Finally, I decided that the only way to get out was to dig away the mud from about the rear wheels. To do this I needed a shovel. Looking up, I saw a farm house some distance away. So I trudged over and borrowed a shovel. With it I presently dug my way out and after returning the shovel went on my way.

Sometime later I had a similar experience and again had to borrow a shovel to get out. On another occasion I came across a man who, on attempting to turn his car on a narrow road, had slid backward down the side of the road and was stuck in the mud of the ditch. What he needed was a shovel, but neither of us had one. Just before starting to drive across the continent I read a magazine account of a party out in New Mexico that were stalled in the mud of a little stream during a heavy rain storm. The owner of the car set out to borrow a shovel but before he returned the stream had risen and washed his car quite a distance from where he left it.

These four experiences led to my buying a shovel and putting it under my back seat. Since then it has been used twice; once to help a fellow traveler stuck in a field and once to get out of a hole myself.

At the beginning of these experiences I had no use whatever for a shovel as automobile equipment. At the end I had a shovel under the back seat—and it is still there. Out of the experiences had come a new want—a want for a shovel as auto equipment. Note the steps in this development.

There was first of all a want to go on. I was going somewhere along the road. When I got stuck in the mud the obstacle only intensified my desire to get out and go on my way.

Second, I sought for a solution to my difficulty. I tried going ahead in low, then in reverse, then using chains wrapped about

the wheels. I also considered putting stones under the wheels. Finally I thought of a shovel.

Third, after using the shovel I found that it was a satisfactory solution to my difficulty.

Fourth, as I drove along I felt a glow of satisfaction that I was out of the hole and going on.

But in my case these four steps were not enough. I had to go through all of them again myself; then I saw another man meeting a similar situation, and finally I read about a party who suffered great loss from the lack of a shovel.

Finally I wanted a shovel sufficiently to get one. I had acquired a new want. I had formed a habit of using a shovel when touring.

To repeat, the steps in the development of an acquired want are:

1. A want.
2. Search for a means to satisfy the want.
3. Use of discovered solution.
4. Satisfaction with the solution.
5. Steps 1 to 4 repeated several times.
6. Solution now wanted for its own sake.

These are the steps in the process by which every object a person wants has become so wanted. At one time in the life of the individual he did not want the object, possibly he had never heard of it. Then he used it in order to satisfy some conscious want. Through its use as a means to an end it acquired utility. Finally it came to be viewed as something that was itself wanted, as something that was needed, as something that was essential.

Examples of Acquired Wants.—"History has it that J. B. Dunlop's son complained, off and on, of the jars he got when riding to school on his bicycle. Being of an inventive turn of mind Dunlop took a rubber hose and applied it to the hard-shod wheels of the bicycle. To that humble beginning the tremendous pneumatic tire industry of today owes its origin." Here the want of the boy to escape constant bumping and the want of the father to please the boy led the latter to find a solution. The resulting satisfaction caused attention to be focused on the performance and further refinements were the result.

Today it is difficult to imagine a time when soap was not extensively used by all. Edwin Balmer,¹ writing in 1910, tells us:

Not long ago toilet soap was a luxury, manufactured for, and used by, the few. It seldom occurred even to makers of soap—certainly it did not generally occur to their social class—that soap was for them. It was above their standard of living . . . The manufacturer of Sapolio and Hand Sapolio desired to create a demand for large quantities of the latter quickly. They had to make large numbers of the people demand it so that they could produce it in great quantities and cheaply.

Instead of competing with other soap manufacturers who depended for their sales upon their ability to raise enough people up from the class of cheap soap users to fine soap users, the manufacturers went for those who had to take the more elemental elevation from dirt to soap . . . With a desire to increase their output of plain soap they had to induce people to be more clean and fastidious about their pantries and kitchens. So when they desired to come up to their possible output in hand soap, they started to raise a higher standard of personal cleanliness than was entirely prevalent. (The soap was not wanted: they had to arouse a want which their soap could satisfy.)

"Be clean!" They put up the plain statement where the people could not dodge it. It stared at us when we were looking over the contents of one magazine and again when we were finding the place in another.

"Be Clean; 'Tis a Fine Habit!" It met us on the car rack: "Be Clean; 'Tis the Best of Good Manners." When we changed cars it met us again: "Be Clean; 'Tis Due to Others."

On other cards and elsewhere we are reminded of "Cleanliness as the First Principle," as "Good Policy," as "Healthfulness" and as "Politeness" . . .

They (the soapmakers) persuade us to make additional effort to be clean and, having once put us on the higher level of more unexceptional cleanliness, they keep us resisting the tendency ever to remain soiled . . .

I would resent as sharply as you the suggestion that I need my standard of cleanliness raised or that it could be raised by a street-car advertisement. But I know that I am one of many of the same class of people who, with those few advertising lines staring at me, was a little less likely to go about complacently under the blanket excuse that everyone in Chicago is entitled to be at least a little soiled.

Now I am sure that I am one only of many thousands who consider themselves habitually clean, yet have, on account of these advertisements, used soap at least a little oftener and have had the standard of cleanliness raised at least that much by this company to enhance the use of a soap. Then there are the many, many thousands who the sale of the soap proved never thought so very much about personal cleanliness till they were met everywhere for a while with the "Be Clean; 'Tis the First Principle, the Best of Good Manners, Good Policy and Healthful."

¹ BALMER, EDWIN, "The Science of Advertising," p. 33 ff., 1910.

Development of Great Systems of Wants.—With the development of the modern railroad there arose the pressing need of a better method of stopping trains than by use of hand brakes. The air brake was invented. And then in order to supply air brakes to engines and cars a great manufacturing establishment arose. Thousands of men were employed and these men performed a myriad number of tasks. And as they worked they constantly discovered better methods of doing their jobs so that there was a constant change in methods and in the organization of the entire business.

Here a want arose to stop railroad trains more quickly and more easily. And in satisfying this want thousands of activities were carried on. Most of these activities were not performed with any thought of the original want for air brakes but merely to perform some other activity. So a pattern-maker struggled with a difficult drawing, or an accountant devised a better system of determining costs, or a purchasing agent sought for bids on office chairs or equipment for a cafeteria.

The same progress from the original want is seen in the case of the young man who wants to be an electrical engineer. In order to reach his goal he must study mathematics in grammar school, high school, and college. Before he finishes his calculus he has developed a great system of wants represented here by principles and formulae, each acquired in order to solve the next. Most of them are acquired with no thought of the want that originally led him to elect calculus instead of history or biology.

A human being is, in a sense, made up of thousands of such wants—some very simple, some very complex. And these systems overlap with one another in all manner of ways and they frequently conflict with one another. So a man may join a country club in order to secure exercise, to hobnob with several good friends, to meet prominent men who may be of value to him in his business, to please his wife who has social aspirations, etc. Such a man satisfies several different wants in the act of joining and is much more likely to take such action than if he only possessed one of these desires. Or on the other hand, he might decide not to join if he felt that golf would interfere with his want to drive his auto in his spare time, or that no matter how much he wanted to join the expense was prohibitive.

Whether or not a man will act in a specific manner depends upon the effect which such action will have upon the satisfaction of the man's wants. This does not mean that an individual sits down and enumerates all his wants and figures out which of possible acts will satisfy the greatest number or the most intensely felt of his wants. He does this sometimes but not often. Ordinarily he acts consciously in terms of only one or just a few of his wants. Even so, however, the pressure of the wants just below the threshold tends to influence his actions.

Objects May Cease to Be Wanted as Well as Come to Be Wanted.—Only a few years ago every prosperous farmer owned one or two good driving horses and a buggy or surrey with which he drove to town on Saturday and to church on Sunday. Frequently these horses were used for no other purpose than driving. In those days a good-looking whip and lap robe were part of the equipment. That one might make a presentable appearance the horse had to be frequently curried and the harness and buggy washed. All these wants were secondary to the more primary ones of going to town and of securing favorable approval. But who feels any of these wants today? Seldom is a whip on display in store or barn. With the buggy went the driving horse. Were it not for the continued use of work horses, that boyhood friend—the blacksmith—would also have disappeared.

This same sort of thing is going on all the time. An object is used to satisfy a want. Many other objects become associated with it as necessities. Then a substitute is discovered and all the accessories go into the discard with it.

The recent advertising campaign of the Van Heusen soft collar calls attention to this point.

You wear a *soft* shirt, with a *soft* bosom, and *soft* cuffs; a *soft* hat; a coat with *soft* rolling lapels. Why? They're more comfortable, and better looking. (Recall the stiff-bosomed shirt, the stiff white cuffs, the derby or even high hat and all the rest that used to be worn and today are wanted by hardly anyone.) Yet not one of these things is nearly so comfortable as is the Van Heusen compared with ordinary collars—*soft* or *starched*.

If the soft collar wins out, the stiff one must go. Or a compromise may result: The soft collar may come to be used for some occasions and the stiff collar for others. The public will finally decide. But their decision will depend to a considerable degree

upon the appeals that the friends of the two kinds of collars present to the public. The American Laundry Machinery Company is interested in stiff collars and they ask: "Have you ever noticed the collars your banker wears?" They go on to tell us that 90 per cent of bankers wear stiff collars, "not because bankers are any more 'finicky' than other folks, but because they recognize the collar's business value. In many organizations, in fact, it is a standing rule that every man shall wear a starched collar and laundered linen. And it is a good rule—for is it to be expected that others will entrust us with their business if in appearance we seem neglectful of our own?" Desire for approval is then to be satisfied and dread of disapproval coupled with dread of losing business are to be eliminated by wearing a stiff collar.

And the Van Heusen people counter by emphasizing that their collar is not so much a starchless collar as a stylish collar. And stylish means approval. "The Van Heusen is the World's Smartest Collar because—it is the *only* collar with style *woven* into it—and comfort *tailored* into it."

Transfer of Interest.—In the development of a new want there is a transfer of interest. In the shovel incident the writer had no interest, no want for a shovel when he first bought his car. Today he views it as an important automobile accessory. Some of his interest in getting out of mud holes has been transferred to shovels.

This transfer of interest, of wantability, is taking place in the minds of everyone all the time. So a man may learn to dance in order to meet some young lady, but continue dancing long after she has been forgotten. Or he may commence attending church in the evening in order to take her home, and continue doing so after he has married her. Concern about appearances and manners arises in boys about the time they become interested in girls. But these interests remain throughout life. The *means* has become an *end* in itself.

It is just because there is this transfer in interest from the want to the object that is used to satisfy the want, that sellers tend so very naturally to emphasize the object and not the want. But until the buyer has come himself to be interested in the object it is foolish for the seller to play up the object. Just imagine

trying to sell me a shovel the day I bought my auto! It might have been done by getting me to picture in my imagination what I later did actually experience. But this is arousing a want. The shovel could not have been sold through any sales talk that played up the construction and workmanship of the shovel or the manufacturer's reputation. But today I am an enthusiast over shovels as auto equipment. My interest in getting out of mud holes is focused on shovels.

An Acquired Want Represents a Habit.—When one has come to want any particular object, he has formed a habit of using that object so as to bring him satisfaction, or at least he has formed a habit of thinking of the object as the best solution to his wants, even if he has not yet acquired the object. The literature on selling is full of examples of sales made after the old farmer has been inveigled into riding in an auto, or the merchant skilfully led into operating a cash register. Using the object is in everyday life the process by which a habit is formed to want the object.

Chapters IX and X emphasized the wants man naturally has. To satisfy these wants he has to utilize objects in his environment—that is the main point in this chapter. In utilizing them he comes to want them, his interest is transferred from the want to the object. And as his interest is transferred a habit¹ is formed of thinking of the object when he feels the want.

Value.—Economists use the term *utility* where the term *wantability* should be preferred. By “utility” they mean “want-satisfying power.” Anything that is wanted possesses utility in the economic sense. But utility is not synonymous with usefulness. A cigar or diamond-studded watch possess utility in the sense that they are wanted but they can hardly be viewed as useful.

Value is based on wants but the factor of supply must also be taken into account. Air to breathe is wanted, it has utility, but it

¹ An acquired want is, then, on the subjective side a mental state, characteristically the wanting of some object; while on the objective side it is a physiological structure composed of sense organs, nerve cells, and muscles. This structure, moreover, has developed out of experience to perform a definite action whenever stimulated. When the specific *occasion* is encountered, the individual has: (1) an *impulsive tendency* to act; (2) a tendency to act *in a particular way*; and (3) a *consciousness*, more or less, of the stimulus, of the want to act, and of the action he is performing or wants to perform (see pages 89 to 93).

has no value, just because the supply is greater than the demand and it is always available to everyone. The value of an object increases with the strength of desire for it and decreases as the supply increases.

The value of a thing is shown by the quantities of other things it commands in exchange. In everyday usage, the value of a thing is measured by the amount of money it will sell for.

Accordingly, value is an expression of the psychological factor of want or demand and the economic factor of supply in relation to demand. In this book the chief concern is not with the economic factor of supply, but it must be recognized that it exists. On the other hand, the psychological factor of demand is being stressed.

From what has gone before, it is clear that the value of an object is an expression of the extent and strength of certain habits in the minds of individuals. Some day it may be possible to X-ray the brains of people and tabulate statistically what habits are therein. But today habits can be measured only by noting what people do. So the value of an object must be measured by the number of people who seek to possess the object.

Short Cuts in Evaluating an Object.—Words like healthful, useful, stylish, clean, labor-saving, cheap, convenient, reliable, fashionable, exclusive, comfortable, and the like are used very extensively in selling. Such abstract words represent a short cut in thinking. Instead of going into detail as to just how raisins, for example, are conducive to health, the seller simply states they are healthful. And because the buyer has had satisfactory experiences with eatables that are healthful, the raisins are made more “wantable” as he thinks of them as healthful.

The strength of such abstract appeals depends upon the habits attaching to each. Some people have very strong habits of reacting unfavorably when any object is designated as unclean, unsanitary, poor quality, out of style, etc. Other people pay little attention to such terms. Yet in most cases both these groups would react in the same unfavorable manner if they actually saw how unclean the article was, or actually realized what “out of style” means in lack of approval, amusement of by-standers, and all the rest.

Wantability can thus be added to an object by describing it in these abstract terms. So a customer pays \$5 more for one chair than another because the salesman says it is of better quality; or an employer hires a young man when a friend attaches to him the terms, honest, courteous, and hardworking.

But when there is real competition between two commodities or when neither is badly wanted, the sale cannot ordinarily be made by merely adding values to it in this short-cut way. In such cases it must be actually demonstrated that the commodity will satisfy certain purposes that the prospect wants carried out.

Herein many salesmen and advertisers fall down. They rely on these short-cut methods too much; they do not play up the want to be satisfied and the real service the commodity can supply in that particular connection.

A case in point is the failure of a very successful salesman to sell a college professor the idea of giving up his academic career and devoting himself to a business closely related to his scientific interests. The salesman's three selling appeals were the great reputation to be gained, the doubling or trebling of the professor's present income, and the opportunity to work with congenial men. The professor turned the proposition down as soon as it was made and a year later in speaking of the matter said he had never regretted the decision at all. What the salesman did not comprehend was that the professor was securing in his university work sufficient favorable approval to satisfy him and that his salary was meeting all of his recognized needs. The change would not bring him approval from his friends and colleagues he thought, and he cared little for the approval of the unknown men he would come in contact with in business. If the salesman had urged the professor to enter business for three years with the idea of coming thoroughly to understand the practical side of his science so that at the end of this time he might become an authority in the application of the science to business, he might have won a favorable decision. Such an opportunity would have appealed very strongly as it would have given him a wider experience in terms of which he could hope to secure greater approval from the scientists with whom he was consciously competing. And if the additional salary had been played up in terms of the many, many things that the professor and his family

could secure which were not then even in his mind, this appeal would have had far more weight. The salesman failed, because he merely added, or rather, tried to add, three values to the new position, instead of developing in the professor new wants which could only be secured by changing his career.

Summary and Application.—An object is wanted not for its own sake, but for what can be gotten out of it.

Usually, an object is bought because of an established habit of buying it. And usually a new object is bought when several abstract terms have been attached to it, *i.e.*, when it has been labeled as “durable,” “well constructed,” “latest model,” and the like.

But when such terms do not create sufficient desire the salesman must discard these short cuts and must fall back upon native wants as motives for buying.

A very clear illustration is given by Watson:

A piano salesman had been working for a certain sale for two weeks. The prospect was a widow who was buying the piano for her daughter. She had intended to buy a higher-priced piano until this salesman came on the ground and showed her a saving of \$190 in buying his piano.

Then she decided that she would rather have the higher-priced piano for her daughter—that the extra prestige in its name was worth \$190—Satisfaction of Pride.

The salesman was up against it. His strong talk on the \$190 saving that had started things his way, was ineffective now. He sat down at the demonstrating piano and as he ran his fingers over the keys seized the opportunity to do a little hard thinking.

“My only argument is the same quality at \$190 less price” he reflected. “But she doesn’t care as much for \$190 as for that high-sounding name on the other piano. That’s Vanity—and the only Motive I have to play on is Money.”

Then an idea occurred.

If Vanity was a Motive in buying a piano, couldn’t he . . .

Well, here is what he did:

“Of course, you know, Mrs. Houston,” he said as he stopped playing and turned round on the bench, “how you enjoy a piano depends more on the one playing it than on the piano, itself. By the way, what instructor are you going to have for your daughter?”

“Miss Martin,” the lady replied.

“Hum,” returned the salesman, “I would advise you to have Professor Habicht.”

“Mercy,” she exclaimed, “he charges \$5 for half-hour lessons. I cannot afford it.”

"Miss Martin charges \$2 a lesson I believe?"

"Yes."

"Then," said the salesman, "the \$190 you plan to spend by buying this other piano, is going to cost your daughter *sixty lessons* that she *might* have with Professor Habicht.

"Sixty lessons under Habicht is too big a thing to overlook, Mrs. Houston, when your daughter's whole musical ability is at stake."

He got the woman to thinking about what that \$190 *would buy*, and finally sold the piano.¹

Note what the salesman accomplished. The competing piano had a better reputation. Mrs. Houston was already in her imagination enjoying the approval her callers would give her when they called and saw the well-known piano in her parlor. This enjoyment was worth more to her than mere money. She was not comparing the pleasure with what the \$190 might buy, but just with the money itself. Then the salesman showed how her daughter could have sixty lessons from Professor Habicht. That made Mrs. Houston think of what all the neighbors would say when they saw the expensive teacher coming regularly to her home. And that enjoyment exceeded the pleasure of having a well-known name on the piano, which would only be seen by a few women.

This story illustrates the whole point of this chapter. The wantability (utility) of an object is an expression of wants to be satisfied by means of the object. If these wants are not consciously felt at the moment then the wantability of the object is based upon the habit of using the object. But habits represent weak, impulsive force in contrast with instincts. Hence, the value of an object reaches its maximum strength only when primary wants are consciously felt and it is seen that they can be satisfied by means of the object.

Questions

1. Why do you want a fountain pen? Answer as fully as you can.
2. Suppose you were manager of a life insurance company and wanted to induce the teller in a bank to sell insurance for you. What wants of the teller can be satisfied better by working for you than in his present position? How would you present them to him?
3. When should a seller discard such words as "healthful," "good quality," "economical" and the like, and present his appeal in a different

¹ WATSON, H., "Knack of Selling," Book I, p. 18 ff., 1913.

manner? Give an example of this "different manner" in the case of selling some particular commodity.

4. What do the terms "utility" and "value" mean?

5. What is meant by "transfer of interest?"

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CHAPTER XII

HOW SOLUTIONS ARE DISCOVERED

The majority of people have carried away from the school-room a very false notion of the part problems play in life. There the mind was deluged with problems to solve, and the attention was focused upon ways of solving them. Consequently, without realizing it, almost everyone has come to think of reasoning as starting with a problem. But actually in everyday life the problem arises relatively late. And in many cases a solution is obtained without a problem having been formulated at all.

The analogy of "a forked road" has often been used to illustrate a problem since John Dewey wrote his "How We Think." A motorist driving from A to B comes to a fork in the road. Shall he turn to right or left? Some kind of reasoning must be employed to solve the difficulty. But if the motorist is out driving for the fun of it, the forked road occasions no difficulty. Either prong will do as well as the other, providing both are equally well paved. A forked road may or may not accordingly be a difficulty to be solved depending upon the plans or intentions of the driver. And so it can be said that a problem is a problem only when it represents an obstacle to the individual's getting something he wants.

There are really *three stages in the process of discovering a solution*. There is first the rise of a dynamic want—a desire for a solution. There is second the discovery of the problem—analysis of the factors that prevent the want from being satisfied. And there is third the discovery of a solution to the problem.

These three stages sometimes occur in one, two, three order. But more often all three are developed, little by little, more or less simultaneously. As a want is realized, the difficulty, or obstacle, is analyzed and solutions flash into consciousness. As such solutions are scrutinized, further details are seen in the difficulty and it is more clearly understood. And because all

this time the want is checked it comes to be felt all the more. Discovering a solution is essentially a trial-and-error process, a trying this and giving up that, until finally a solution emerges that is good enough for the matter in hand.

How a Solution Is Sought.—Sometimes a man is precipitated into a situation where a solution must be instantly found. This is typified in the driving of an auto. In the continual problems involved in careful driving those responses are made which were learned in former practice. The driver who has practiced using his emergency brake is likely to use it in case of need. The driver who never uses it except when parking is very unlikely to use it in an emergency. Rear-Admiral Bradley A. Fiske in his recent book, "The Navy as a Fighting Machine," expresses this idea when he says:

It must be borne in mind that in actual life our only real guide to wise action in any contingency that may arise is a memory, more or less consciously realized, of how a similar contingency has been met, successfully or unsuccessfully, in the past. Perhaps most of us do not realize that it is not so much experience that guides us as our memory of experiences. Therefore, in the training of both officers and enlisted men in strategy, tactics, seamanship, gunnery, engineering, and the rest, the memory of how they, or someone else, did this well and that badly (even if the memory be hardly conscious), is the immediate agency for bringing about improvement.

Many times a man is not precipitated into employing a solution, but instead the desire for a solution develops rather slowly. At first there is nothing more in mind than a vague longing. Thus an employee wishes he had another job, or the employer feels he ought to make more money. Day-dreaming is characteristic of this stage.

Sooner or later the thing that prevents the want from being satisfied is noted. The employee comes to realize that he does not like his superior or that there is no chance of promotion. And the business man learns that his chief competitor has increased his business 50 per cent this last year while he knows his own increase was only 17 per cent. Immediately his general vague desire to make more money is focused upon this startling fact that his 17 per cent has not been good enough. So likewise, a man in seemingly good condition may fail to pass a life insurance examination. The obstacle, whatever it is, focuses the vague general longing down to one specific desire.

When this has happened a really dynamic want arises. The good enough increase of 17 per cent which has lulled the business man into complacency is brushed aside. Something has got to be done. The man who cannot get life insurance now wants a doctor to tell him what to do to regain his health, a matter which he has never considered before.

At this stage there exists a want surging forward to break through what dams it up. There is now a genuine interest in finding a solution.

How a Problem Arises.—If the obstacle is a familiar one, it may be properly called a problem. Thus a blow-out represents the problem of changing tires. And the failure to pass a physical examination focuses attention upon regaining one's health, or upon conserving it as long as possible.

But in many cases the obstacle is not familiar, is not really comprehended, and it must be analyzed and studied before a solution can possibly be found. So the employee who discovers there is no possibility of promotion, which means no possibility of increased pay, must now study himself and other jobs in order to decide just what he wants and what can be obtained. And our business man must locate the weak point in his organization before he can possibly hope to prescribe the proper remedy.

Four steps in the analysis of an obstacle into a real problem, may be recognized, *i.e.*:

1. Obstacle unknown—*e.g.*, presence of a cancer in the average man.

2. Obstacle guessed—the hunch stage—*e.g.*, the man thinks that he has a cold coming on, or that he is smoking too much, or that he needs a vacation. Possibly he wonders if he may have a cancer, remembering that his aunt's cousin had one.

3. Obstacle localized—now partly analyzed and partly understood—*e.g.*, the doctor says, "cancer," at the first examination.

4. Obstacle thoroughly understood—now properly a *problem*, *e.g.*, several X-rays and examinations by experts have led to a carefully stated analysis of the situation.

Because man finds adequate thinking hard work he always tends to side step it when possible. So the tendency is to find a solution that looks good, and to quit worrying. Just as soon as

the "hunch" stage is reached, solutions are sought and very frequently action is taken in terms of a possible solution without waiting to ascertain whether the hunch is correct or not. The history of most business concerns will amply illustrate this fact. Increasing recognition of this tendency is the underlying cause of the increasing emphasis upon research work in all departments of a business, for it is the especial business of a research man to reduce hunches to definite problems and then to solve the problems in an adequate manner.

Craig points out:

The conclusion of the chief executive has come as an unconscious piecing together of his impressions received from his personal experience of the past, from current reading, from men in the same trade, from men in his own organization, from trade and technical journals, from statistical services, and from his bankers. As a result of this unconscious analysis, the decision is often influenced by immediate and temporary conditions or even by the physical condition of the executive himself.

In unusual cases of genius this "hunch" method of determining general policies will produce brilliant decisions; but by and large, greater progress will be made by a conscious analysis of the facts.¹

Craig explains why "hunches" have been used on the ground that up to 1917 the executive did not have a measure of external conditions nor methods for the proper interpretation of facts which were available. These are true explanations but Craig's third reason is the chief one, namely, that business could be carried on successfully without adequate study. Since entering the war conditions have changed so that hunches have had to be more sharply localized if not reduced to definite problems.

The recent development of retail accounting and control illustrates how business men are ceasing to rely upon "hunches" and are more and more insisting upon basing their policies upon facts. Until recently, retail stores were managed on a "hunch" basis. Then came the use of statistics, furnishing in retrospect a clear idea of what had happened. Now many stores are on a budget basis. Such budgets furnish a sound basis for judgment of current operations, aid in coordinating the activities of the business, and centralize executive control. Because the budget is valuable only to the extent that the management has reduced

¹ CRAIG, R. C., "Scientific Methods vs. 'Hunch' in the Chief Executive's Office," *Industrial Management*, July, 1922.

"hunches" to clean-out problems, its use constantly forces better and more comprehensive analysis. As problems become thoroughly understood their correct solutions tend to appear.

How Solutions Are Discovered.—In order to satisfy the existing want and also to escape the added dissatisfaction of suspense, one solution after another is considered until some one is hit upon that enables the blocked want to be satisfied.

In Lowell, Mass., 25 years ago, there was a printing office where, among the other compositors, there was one whom we shall call, for the moment, H. O. This man suffered a good deal from backaches. Often at night he was so tired that his back, as he put it, "wasn't worth 2 cents."

Time went on and the backaches disappeared for a while. But one night he felt the same old affliction, the backache and the heavy fatigue. It set him thinking, for he realized that it was the first night for some weeks that he had been tired. He thought over the day to see what it was that could have made the difference. He recalled that on that day he had been unable to find the rubber mat which he had lately acquired for the purpose of relieving the strain of standing all day on the hard concrete of the shop floor.

The next morning when he returned to the printing shop, he looked all over for the mat and finally located it under the type case of another compositor. Pulling it out, he cut off two pieces of rubber about the size of the heel of his shoe.

He tacked these on his heels and turning to his fellow compositor said, "Now you can have your damn old mat."

H. O. was Humphrey O'Sullivan.

This was the starting of O'Sullivan's Rubber Heels.¹

O'Sullivan found more or less by accident a solution to the want to escape a backache by standing on a rubber mat. But it made so little impression on him that he hardly noticed the loss of the mat until his back commenced to ache again. Then he felt the want acutely and in searching for a solution the mat incident came to mind. This time he clearly analyzed the situation.

This search for a solution can be characterized as either a "trial-and-error" or a reasoning process. First of all, usually, the search consists of trying one thing after another, discarding each in turn if it is not useful, and accepting that which makes it possible to go on. This is just the process most people follow in locating a rattle about an auto. But when trying this and

¹ *J. Walter Thompson News Bulletin*, August, 1922.

that fails to solve the difficulty, or when one is forced to employ ideas, then reasoning is substituted for "trial and error."

Because reasoning always takes time and so interferes with progress, it operates like any obstacle to occasion irritation and dissatisfaction. The tendency is always to cut reasoning short and go ahead. Many individuals cannot reason a matter out because they cannot hold themselves in check; and much of the rapidity of decision of which some executives boast is only a camouflaging of their inability to think out real solutions to difficulties.

But sometimes difficulties have to be mastered. In such cases it is found that the obstacle is analyzed into its parts and replaced by the statement of a definite problem to be solved. Definite *assumptions* as to how the problem may be solved take the place of "hunches" and these assumptions are then thoroughly scrutinized and accepted or rejected on the basis of carefully considered reasons. The final solution is systematically checked and then tested in a preliminary tryout.

These three processes of: (1) analyzing the difficulty into its parts; (2) stating the problem in clean-cut language; and (3) raising one or more assumptions, or hypotheses, as to how it may be solved "do not take place in one, two, three order, but rather occur in random order, back and forth, each advance in any one of the three helping to advance the other two. In other words, each further analysis of the difficulty helps to formulate still more clearly just what the problem is, and these formulations help to raise other assumptions or to strengthen or weaken assumptions already considered. Each new assumption may present a new point of view, necessitating further analysis of the original difficulty. All this is very well illustrated by the procedure of candidates for a degree, who have to write theses. They flounder around trying this and that, changing the general problem from time to time. When they reach the point where they can formulate their problem in definite language they are about one-third through their thesis work, for they have then analyzed the problem and have clear ideas as to how to go to work to solve it (have assumptions to test out).

"While I was driving my automobile along a country road the wheels suddenly skidded just enough to turn the car at a right

angle to the road. By the time I was able to stop it the car had run off the edge of the road and was headed down a steep incline. My companion and I got out of the car and walked about surveying the situation. Our first reasoned reaction was that it would wreck the car if it went down the steep incline to the level pasture below. This conclusion was an assumption. Now, in terms of it just as much as in terms of the actual situation itself, the further reactions were made. After trying a number of plans which all proved ineffectual in getting the machine back on the road, we finally questioned the assumption itself. After a careful survey we decided that by going very slowly it would be possible to get the car down the steep incline (our second assumption). Reaching the pasture it was clear that we could get back on the road at a point farther along. This plan was carried out and we went on our way.

"Our first assumption was incorrect, and as long as we held to it so long the car was stuck. With a change of assumption we freed ourselves from the difficulty.

"Sherlock Holmes was always preaching to Watson the necessity of distinguishing between the facts and the assumptions based on the facts. The trouble with most of us is that we do not question our assumptions but accept them as true . . .

"Reasoning involves, then, raising assumptions and testing them out. It should be borne in mind that we must not only test out all the various solutions that come to mind, but also must deliberately ask ourselves: What is the assumption upon which I am basing my solutions? Is it correct? In the case of a problem with five significant details, we should not permit ourselves to center all our efforts on trying out the possibilities aroused by considering one of these details, but should consider each detail in turn. Possibly the real solution will come to mind only after considering the fifth detail; possibly it will come to mind only when all five are considered together, or possibly when only the second and fifth are considered. Ruger¹ reports a case where an individual worked 3,600 seconds chiefly at one point in a puzzle. 'He was then asked to state his assumptions. He did so, stating that he was trying to pass the ring over the end of the central loop and so off. (The ring came off, not there, how-

¹ RUGER, H. A., "The Psychology of Efficiency," p. 31, 1910.

ever, but at a hinge on the side of the figure.) He was asked to change his assumption. After 480 seconds more, he was asked what he was doing. He replied, rather sheepishly, that he was still working along the same line. He was then asked to state what other possible ways of solution there might be. He mentioned the correct one: "Well, it is just possible that the ring could come off at the hinges." He could not seem to bring himself, however, to test the second hypothesis in any thorough-going way.'

"The more clearly we formulate our assumptions, the greater the chance there is for us to vary the steps in solving our problem and to utilize the experience in new situations later in life. In the case of a puzzle we have no guide and this is true of the big problems of life. Not until the puzzle is solved or, in life, not until years afterward do we know whether the separate moves were correct. Hence, the more clearly we get before us just what each assumption really means, the better we are prepared for deciding on the appropriate move to make."¹

The process of discovering a solution has now been traced very briefly. In the next chapter the process of accepting a solution will be considered—the problem of decision and action. Before going on let us digress a moment and consider the problem of "interest"—that terrible bugaboo of selling.

INTERESTING A PROSPECT

It is well recognized that one of the most difficult steps in selling is that of "interesting the prospect."

Nature of Interest.—When one performs a routine habit there is a minimum of interest. But when any activity is interfered with to some extent, but not completely, then the state of mind called *interest* is present. If the obstacle is quickly overcome, the interest is pleasant; if the obstacle is overcome only after much struggling then the interest is unpleasant.

An illustration will aid in making these distinctions clear. If as soon as I think of eating, food is provided, I am *satisfied*. If it is not forthcoming, I *want* it. If when I think of it, it is not at hand, I am *interested* in it and in methods of getting it. If the methods I select lead very shortly to food, then I am pleas-

¹ Adapted from the author's "Introductory Psychology for Teachers," part II, lesson 39, 1922.

antly interested—elated, we often say. But if my methods are not successful I become more and more irritated and although I am still interested in finding a way to satisfy my want, yet I am in far from a pleasant attitude.

It may be concluded that a person is always *interested in solutions to his difficulties*, in the overcoming of obstacles to what he wants. If he breaks his shoe lace, he is interested in finding another, or in tying a knot in the broken lace. If the engine in his auto will not start he is interested in finding some way to start it. If he has had dishonest salesmen in his store he is interested in ways of eliminating opportunities of stealing from him.

Desire arises because of the want that is blocked; *interest* arises when attention is focused upon solving the difficulty. When desire precedes, interest follows and there exists play, or at least work, that is very interesting.

But to try to interest a child in a problem or a prospect in some commodity when there is no desire present is to proceed along the line of greatest resistance.

The salesman's problem of "interesting a prospect" arises because of the false notion that discussion of a problem is the proper starting point in a sale. Because it is assumed that a problem is the proper starting point for a lesson in school or for a sales presentation in selling, people get themselves into a great deal of trouble. It is not only necessary to teach the child how to solve the problem, but also to interest him so that he will exert himself. And in selling it is not only necessary to show the prospect how the commodity will serve him, but also to interest him sufficiently so he will listen. Most teachers and salesmen testify that to interest is more difficult than to show.

A problem in everyday life arises relatively late in the whole process of satisfying a want, as has been shown above. If a prospect has reached the problem stage, as, for example, has asked himself, "How can I cut down the cost of delivery?" then he is ready for a solution and will be interested in a truck salesman's discussion of the subject. But if he has not reached this stage, has not thought about deliveries, he will have to be led first of all to want to consider the problem, and then second to solve the problem. In other words, the salesman should

arouse a *want* first and then present the solution: never attempt to solve a problem and at the same time try to interest the prospect in such solution.

The expression "*interesting a prospect*" should be eliminated from the salesman's vocabulary. "Getting attention" and "securing interest" should not be emphasized at all. To do so is to lay stress upon mere by-products in influencing another. What should be emphasized is the *want* the prospect has (already aroused or dormant), the *obstacle* that prevents him from satisfying his want, and the *solution*. He will always give attention to his own wants; and when he is conscious of want and obstacle he just naturally seeks a solution. And so interest will always occur.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN "HOW SHOULD DIFFICULTIES BE SOLVED?" AND "HOW ARE DIFFICULTIES SOLVED?"

The distinction drawn by many between a practical man and a theoretical one is that the former accepts as correct what agrees with his previous experience, whereas the latter accepts as correct what agrees with scientific principles. Past experience is not a perfect guide, nor is theoretical calculation. Due to inadequate thinking and to the overlooking of factors that must be taken into account, mistakes are constantly made in both procedures. It must be admitted, however, that men rely far more on past experience than upon scientific calculations. Very few people will risk their money upon a new invention until it is a demonstrated success. Every scientific accomplishment has had to pass through a stage when it was deemed impracticable and impossible. And the best experts in the particular field invaded by it have often been those who most doubted the possibilities of the new invention.

The scientist, the expert, the staff executive are all interested in "*How should* a problem be solved?" But the salesman, the minister, the lawyer before a jury, the politician, the social worker, any and all who are influencing others must be interested in "*How are* problems solved?" If the latter are to lead their followers in the right direction they must, like the expert, ascertain facts. And they must, like the expert, present the solution they believe is the correct one. But it is seldom good procedure

for them to present to their followers the detailed steps by which the correct solution was reached. Instead, they should present "reasons" for the adoption of the solution which are within the mental scope of their followers. This means that such reasons will be based on the experiences these followers have had. What does a man expect from a lawyer? He states his difficulty and asks advice. He does not ask him for all the legal decisions he has in mind and upon which he bases his advice.

Many salesmen are more inefficient than they need be because they feel it is necessary in selling to prove their assertions as one expert would prove the matter to another. Many a life insurance salesman bores his prospects by detailed discussion of "reserve" and "tables of mortality" and methods of calculating a premium. In this connection the writer recalls the experiences of the chief chemist of a large corporation whose president did not even know what H_2O was. For years he had difficulty getting badly needed equipment but finally he ceased to discuss chemical problems and simply expressed the results to be obtained in terms of dollars and cents. Such matters the president thoroughly understood.

Years ago the writer had a job in a surveying crew. After three days of the hardest kind of work running a line through dense underbrush without discovering a single corner stake, the head surveyor announced he would try different tactics. The next day he started the crew out with a compass and a chain and left the heavy transit in camp. And during the day the men merely walked through the woods in the desired direction as indicated by the compass, and there was no cutting of underbrush. Whenever especially hard walking was encountered it was side stepped, record being kept, of course, of how great a deviation was made to right or left. The surprising thing was that the stakes were found with little difficulty. The original government surveyors had been paid to run accurate lines with transits. But they did not do it. They merely walked through the woods and located mile and half-mile corners approximately where they belonged. And to find those stakes years after it was necessary to do what the original surveyors did.

The same thing holds true in salesmanship. If the salesman would lead a prospect to solve some one of his difficulties he must

present the matter in *about the way the prospect would think it out himself* if given time and information enough. The failure in so many instances of efficiency engineering has been due to this, that the engineer clothed his ideas in terms of engineering principles utterly unknown to workmen and executives. The result was they were not "sold" and so the organization reverted back, whenever they could, to what they did understand.

Many selling organizations handling technical products recognize this principle. For example, if a purchasing agent calls in his engineers to test the salesman's product, the salesman arranges to have his company's engineers meet the prospect's engineers. When the purchasing agent has received back a report from his own engineers then the salesman reopens his sales activities. The salesman is frequently quite able to answer all the questions the engineers might ask but he cannot express them in just the language and from the point of view of the engineers. A better impression can be made by his own engineers. But he can answer the purchasing agent's questions in better fashion than could his technicians.

The chief concern in this chapter is with the manner in which man does solve his problems, not with how he should do so, because in influencing others it is necessary to lead their minds along those paths which they would naturally follow if they were solving the problems by themselves. To lead them along possibly better but unfamiliar paths is to confuse them and make them distrust the results, even though they have been led to think correctly instead of incorrectly. Some of the ethical aspects of all this will be considered at a later point.

Questions

1. What steps precede the formulation of a problem?
2. What are the steps in solving a problem?
3. When should a salesman present technical proof? When should he not do so? Explain.
4. What is interest?
5. How can the salesman's problem of "interesting his prospect" be eliminated? Explain.
6. Illustrate all the steps involved in solving a problem in terms of some recent experience you have had.
7. Select three advertisements reproduced in this text that present a solution to the reader in a proper manner. Select three advertisements that are faulty in this respect. Explain.

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CHAPTER XIII

DECISION AND ACTION

Life is largely a matter of satisfying wants. First there is a vague feeling of unrest. The cause may be unknown; but after a time it is guessed at, partially localized, or completely understood, depending upon circumstances. A solution to the difficulty is sought. It may be discovered by trying this and trying that, or it may be reasoned out. So much was discussed in the preceding chapter.

The problems of decision and action are now to be discussed. What factors determine the acceptance of a solution, the decision to go ahead?

Decisions Are Made in Terms of Immediate Satisfaction or of Future Consequences. *Acceptance on the Basis of Immediate Satisfaction.*—Obviously, if a solution was discovered through the method of trying this and that, it was accepted when it was found to work. In such cases, trying it out comes first; discovery of the solution, second; and decision to employ it, third.

This constitutes the most natural course of decision—to act first, and then, if the result is unsatisfactory, to stop and try something else; or if the result is satisfactory, to continue.

It is because of this that a *demonstration* plays such an important part in all sales presentations where a demonstration is possible. After trying out the product the prospect just naturally accepts or rejects in terms of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction he has experienced. It is the easiest way for him to arrive at a decision and the most thoroughly free from regret.

But in many cases an actual *try-out* is impossible because of cost or other obstacles. Then a *mental try-out* must be resorted to. In his imagination the individual thinks through the process of using the solution to see if it will work.

One of the chief functions of the seller is to aid the prospective buyer to picture to himself the use of the commodity for sale.

Note, for example, how Judson led his prospect to see what might happen to his wife who would receive lump-sum insurance (page 47) and then again to picture to himself just how a complete insurance program would work out in his own case (page 48).

The function of the reasons, suggestions, appeals, or whatever they are called, that a salesman gives to his prospect is largely to enable the prospect mentally to try out the commodity for sale and so experience in his imagination the resulting satisfaction.

Frequently such mental try-outs are hardly more than day-dreams in which one enjoys the anticipated solution of his difficulty and really does not consider in any adequate manner whether the solution will work. Such thinking is very characteristic of children. As years go by, however, mental try-outs include more and more consideration of the consequences of the contemplated action.

Acceptance on the Basis of Consequences.—When consequences are taken into account, the person considers whether a particular solution will bring satisfaction later on, tomorrow, a year from now, in old age. When one takes into account the resale price of an auto he is considering future consequences. When he feels the thrill of owning a more expensive car than his old one he is considering present satisfaction but not the consequences of his action.

Taking consequences into account has been forced upon the majority of men more or less due to the many times when they went ahead in terms of immediate satisfaction only to suffer afterwards. Handling bees, eating green apples or too much candy, going to a party with dirty ears, swearing before women, and similar experiences have combined to teach habits of *caution*—of going slow, of scrutinizing a solution to see what the aftermath will be. And because sad consequences have come so often because others did not like what was done, it is usual to ask in this connection, "What will others say, if I do this?"

When consequences are carefully considered the individual is apt to act more wisely than if he goes ahead without thought. But unless he is in a position to know the facts that bear on the matter his decision may not be a correct one even though he does look ahead.

Four Decisions Are Involved in Buying.—A woman upon returning home from a visit with friends is struck with the fact that the front yard of her home looks shabby. And she desires something better. Before she acts she must first decide what objects to buy, *i.e.*, plants, turf, new sidewalk, etc.; second, from whom she will buy; third, whether to fix up the yard or the living-room or get a washing machine or send her daughter this year to private school, etc.; and fourth, when to buy.

Stated in more general terms, when a person is possessed of a want he must decide:

1. What commodity to buy to satisfy the want.
2. Whose commodity to buy.
3. Whether to satisfy the want or some other want.
4. When to buy.

The first two of these four decisions relate to the solution—how the want is to be satisfied. The second two have to do with the want itself—whether this want shall be satisfied in preference to other wants.

The decision as to “when to buy” is really the same sort of decision as “whether to satisfy the want under consideration or some other want.” “When to buy” involves “whether to satisfy the want in mind” right now regardless of everything else or whether to satisfy a lot of other wants right now and make the purchase when it is convenient. The weaker the original want the more procrastination there will be; the stronger the want the sooner the purchase will be made.

If the individual is considering the purchase of a new article, such as a washing machine, all four of these decisions must more or less consciously be made in favor of the machine before it is bought. But if the individual is considering the purchase of an article such as sugar, which has been bought many times, none of these decisions is really made. About all that can be said of the matter is that when the stock of sugar is exhausted more is ordered. Which of these four decisions will have to be made by any prospective buyer depends upon a number of factors.

As an example of what is involved in many purchases consider this situation. Miss Blank, a senior in college, lives in a small town close to a large city. She is very fond of outings, especially canoeing on a river near her home. For her costume she wants

khaki knickers and a pongee shirt. Her family affords her the necessary clothing and money for her pleasures, but her mother's consent is necessary in purchases of any significance.

Her statement, as secured by Miss L. B. Hawkins, is:

I want to wear knickers and a shirt because I do not like to have to fuss with a dress when I am out in a canoe or on a hike. In the canoe skirts have to be gathered up to keep them from being drabbled around the bottom and they have to be pulled down over the knees constantly. They restrict freedom of movement when we are climbing.

I know the khaki knickers are hot. In fact, they will be very hot to wear up the river in the canoe. But the utter disregard I will need to pay to my dress if I wear them will, I think, compensate for my discomfort from the heat. I always look so dowdy after I have worn a white linen skirt and middy blouse. I always get dirtier than any of the other girls.

But mother doesn't approve at all of the knickers and I hope father never sees me in them. Mother agreed with me about all I said as to the comfort of them and then she gave me all her arguments against them. She said in spite of all I said I must consider what others would say. No girl in our community has worn them and it is a very conventional little town. She says it will make me conspicuous and she is sure it will not bring forth any admiration outside my own circle of school friends. Whether or not I like it, she argues, public opinion cannot be held too lightly by a young girl.

I have reason to know that at least a part of what she says is quite true because once I wore the knickers of one of my Pittsburgh friends for just a few blocks from home. I met my old high-school teacher who has always been very fond of me. She said nothing but she glanced back at me for the distance of a whole block in such a shocked way. I am not very daring as a general rule and certainly I am not anxious to start this fad in my community. I should gladly give it to someone else to do but no one seems inclined, and I do want to wear knickers very much. Then, too, I rebel against being dictated to by such an unreasonable and prejudiced public. My best girl friend is going to get them, too, if I do. Her mother is objecting but will give in, we think. Unfortunately we live in different towns and my community does not know her very well, so she will not strengthen my position here.

I will have to buy something anyway for sport wear this spring. I do not need any new middies, but I would have to have two new linen skirts either white or dark blue, if I wear the usual costume. The seamstress would make them this month while she is sewing at our house. The knickers cost \$2.50 and the pongee shirt \$3 to \$5, which means a greater expense, but the laundry will not be so hard or expensive, especially when you consider the laundry of all the undergarments worn with the middy and skirt. I will have the comfort of looking tidy all the time, and I believe very attractive also. I have a slender boyish figure, but I am a trifle knock-kneed.

My mother has left it to me to decide, but I know she will not be pleased. The half-hearted consent she gave means that she is resigned to the conse-

quences, but not convinced of the wisdom of wearing knickers. Moreover, I know just what my father will say to her when he finds out, "Why do you allow your daughter to appear in the community in that unladylike outfit?" He probably will not say anything to me, but look grieved. But if I stand the first few weeks, I believe it will all be over and I can be reinstated in the eyes of a critical community.

In this case the chief decision is whether to satisfy the want for khaki knickers for canoeing or to satisfy the want to secure approval from father, mother, and friends.

In most cases when the decision has been made to satisfy a certain want regardless of all other wants the person disposes of the other three decisions quite promptly. But more often the person has many wants to satisfy. Which is satisfied first depends upon many details. Cost enters into such calculations just because it determines how many of the wants can be satisfied with the money at hand. Thus a woman with about \$10 to spend, may want a \$5 percolator, and a \$4 pair of candlesticks and a \$10 handbag. She wants the latter more than either of the others but not so much as both of them. As the matter stands she will probably buy the first two, but if she sees a sale of handbags at \$6 then the latter is very likely to be purchased, and possibly the candlesticks also.

The four decisions as to what commodity to buy, from whom to buy, when to buy, and whether after all some other procedure might bring more satisfaction, are made sometimes in terms of immediate satisfaction and sometimes in terms of future consequences. Usually what is in a person's mind is such a grand chaotic mixture of ideas and feelings that he could not explain his motives himself.

Decision and Action Not Identical.—Many assume that decision and action are identical, or that if not identical they are intimately related and that action always follows decision. This, however, is not inevitable—action does not always follow decision.

Action Sometimes Precedes Decision.—At the beginning of the chapter attention was called to the fact that when a solution is hit upon through the process of "trial-and-error," action necessarily precedes decision. In such cases decision is made in terms of the resulting satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Solving puzzles is typical of this type of decision. The same thing is

true of many actions around the home and in business. When a person does not know what to do and does not have any way of deciding, he is apt to try something, or anything, and see how it works.

Another phase of this same condition appears when the problem is a complicated one. The tendency in such a case is to break up the complex problem into its parts and decide upon each separately. For example, after an advertising campaign has been mapped out as completely as possible, different parts are often tried out in particular localities in order to check up and see if they will be successful. On the basis of the results the final decision is made.

Action Sometimes Takes Place without Any Decision.—For example, when a man's alarm rings in the morning he jumps out of bed to shut it off. From then on until he arrives at the office each act follows its predecessor and in turn sets off the next one. Once in a while a decision has to be made as to which pair of shoes or which necktie to wear. But such decisions are infrequent as compared with the many actions that are performed with almost no attention to what is being done.

Efficiency consists in large measure in eliminating decisions, in standarizing procedure, in establishing definite habits. For example, in a recent study of candy packers it was found that a considerable amount of time was spent in deciding whether to put this or that chocolate cream in the box. When a proper procedure was finally decided upon the girls were required to fill the boxes in the same order each time. Freeing them from the necessity of making decisions resulted in an increase of 35 per cent in output. In all such cases one or more decisions enter into the formation of the habit. But once the habit is established action takes place automatically without further consideration of pros and cons.

Just as the establishment of standarized procedure results in efficiency in production so the development of habits of buying the manufacturer's goods leads to decreased cost of selling.

Advertising is responsible for many decisions to buy. Again and again a certain commodity is seen and gradually the reader comes to decide to buy. Sometimes he will say to himself, "I'll buy that next time." More often he never does definitely decide

but some day goes in and buys. Frequently on such occasions he says to the sales clerk, "I have been going to buy that for a long time." That remark is the visible sign of the gradual change that has taken place in him.

It is this type of action where no decision is involved that is the proper objective of advertising and selling. It is obtained by forming definite habits of buying.

Action Sometimes Does Not Immediately Follow a Decision.—For example, the comptroller of a large corporation sent a requisition to the purchasing agent for an additional safe in which to keep his records. The purchasing agent called for bids. When they were in he called in his engineering staff to advise him as to the specifications. They considered the matter for some time and finally witnessed tests on the two best safes at the Underwriters' Laboratory in Chicago. Finally they recommended one of the safes. The salesman of the winning company had patiently followed all the procedure and upon learning of the decision of the prospect's engineering staff went out to get the order. But he did not get it for a full month. While the investigation was under way the discussion was restricted to an intellectual consideration as to which was the best safe. At the close everyone had more or less forgotten why they wanted a safe at all. And the order was not given until the comptroller stirred up the matter again.

The above illustrates the fact that whenever a decision has to be made action has to be inhibited while the matter is under advisement. During that time the various solutions are evaluated and finally one accepted. At the time the decision is made, the individual may be hardly aware of the want that first caused all his intellectual activity. And, moreover, during all that time the want has been held in check. The result is that the decision can be made without the individual feeling any particular urge to act upon it. Before action will occur the individual must again feel the want and very often he must feel it all the more strongly because for so long he has held it in check. It can accordingly be expected that the longer the time a person has spent in making a decision the less likely he will act immediately after making it.

Factors Affecting Action.—A man acts when he wants to badly enough and when he is confident that the solution will give him what he wants.

Anything causing conflict and decision prevents action. *Four factors unfavorable to action* may be noted:

1. Competing wants, forcing a decision.
2. Competing solutions, forcing a decision.
3. Unfamiliarity of the solution, arousing caution and consideration of consequences.
4. Effort necessary to act, forcing decision as to when to act.

To secure action, the seller must, on the positive side, make sure that the prospect feels a want and that he is confident the seller's goods will adequately satisfy him. In addition, on the negative side, the seller must eliminate from the prospect's mind all competing wants and solutions.

The positive side of securing action is discussed in almost every chapter in this book. Consider for the moment the negative side.

Keeping Competing Wants out of Mind.—Miss Blank's difficulty in deciding whether to buy khaki knickers or not, illustrates the problem here. So long as her wants were in conflict she could hardly decide. Everyone wants more things than he can possibly get. He spends a great deal of his time weighing these wants and deciding which to satisfy next. When he tells a salesman, "I haven't the money," or "I can't give the time," he really means in most cases, "I would rather spend my money or my time doing something else." Practically the only resource the seller has in such cases is to crowd these competing wants out of mind by getting the prospect to concentrate on the seller's proposition and the pleasure to be secured from it.

Keeping Competing Solutions out of Mind.—When action is desired the aim should be to prepare a definite program. Every option should be eliminated, for every option forces consideration and that checks the onward movement to the final act. And great care should be taken that the whole proposition appears as similar as possible to what has already been experienced by the prospect. This means the seller will prescribe a remedy and will not call for any more decisions on details than are absolutely

necessary. It means also that he will not discuss competing goods any more than is absolutely necessary.

A gentleman related recently how he escaped buying life insurance. He said, "I was all ready to buy, I know that. Then the question of which policy to buy came up, and the fool salesman talked so long about both kinds that I cooled down and when my partner came in, I introduced him to the salesman and slipped out."

This insurance salesman made two mistakes. He should not have opened up a discussion as to which of two policies the prospect should take. He should have given the prospect the policy that in his judgment best fitted the prospect's needs. (Doctors and lawyers do not make this mistake—they assume and their clients assume that they know the best procedure.) And second, if the prospect forced a discussion as to which policy to take, the salesman should have striven, of course, for a favorable decision. But if considerable time was consumed in the discussion the salesman should have immediately followed the decision by a review of the reasons for taking the policy. Instead he tried to close when the prospect was more or less cold to the matter and tired out with considering a lot of statistics (see Chap. XXVII for further details).

Eliminating Caution.—A solution that is familiar, or recognized as having been used by someone else, is viewed as practical and readily accepted, whereas a solution that is new and unfamiliar is viewed as theoretical by the average man. Habits of *caution* are aroused by unfamiliarity and then reasons are demanded. Particularly is this the case if the new solution is presented by a person who gives reasons which are themselves unfamiliar. Group insurance, or the installation of a cafeteria or medical clinic in a manufacturing plant, is frequently viewed askance by employees because they do not understand the employer's point of view; just as he in turn frequently labels such devices as visionary when brought to his attention because the insurance salesman or personnel manager fails to present them in terms of his ways of thinking.

Caution arises when something unfamiliar is encountered. Doubt and disbelief arise when the new idea does not agree with one's own ideas, when a statement is different from what is

expected. Expressed in other words, a prospect becomes cautious when he hears new or unfamiliar ideas. And once in that frame of mind he will actively look for details to support his suspicion that all is not right. Philip Gibbs¹ describes very clearly how he came to disbelieve Dr. Cook's claims that he had discovered the North Pole.

In response to my request for his "story," Cook evaded a direct reply, until, later in the morning, the Danes and I pressed him to give us an hour in his salon.

It was in the salon, however, that he delivered himself, unwillingly, I thought, into our hands. As the two or three young Danes knew but little English, the interview became mainly a dialogue between Dr. Cook and myself. I had no suspicion of him, no faint shadow of a thought that all was not straightforward. Being vastly ignorant of Arctic exploration, I asked a number of simple questions to extract his narrative; and to save myself trouble and get good "copy," I asked very soon whether he would allow me to see his diary.

To my surprise, he replied with a strange, defensive look that he had no diary. His papers had been put on a yacht belonging to a man named Whitney, who would take them to New York.

"When will he get there?" I asked.

"Next year," said Dr. Cook.

"But surely," I said, still without suspicion, "you have brought your journal with you? The essential papers?"

"I have no papers," he said, and his mouth hardened.

"Perhaps I could see your astronomical observations?" I said, and was rather pleased with that suggestion.

"Haven't I told you that I have brought no papers?" he said.

He spoke with a sudden violence of anger which startled me. Then he said something which made suspicion leap into my brain.

"You believed Nansen," he said, "and Amundsen, and Sverdrup. They had only their story to tell. Why don't you believe me?"

I had believed him. But at that strange, excited protest and some uneasy, almost guilty look about the man, I thought, "Hullo! What's wrong? This man protests too much!"

From that moment I had grave doubts of him, I pressed him several times about his papers. Surely he was not coming to Europe, to claim the greatest prize of exploration, without a scrap of his notes, or any of his observations? He became more and more angry with me, until, for the sake of getting some narrative from him, I abandoned that interrogation, and asked him for his personal adventures, the manner of his journey, the weights of his sledges, the number of his dogs, and so on. As I scribbled down his answers, the story appeared to me more and more fantastic. And

¹ GIBBS, P., "Adventures of an International Reporter," *World's Work*, p. 482ff., March, 1923.

he contradicted himself several times, and hesitated over many of his answers, like a man building up a delicate case of self-defense. By intuition, rather than evidence, by some quick instinct of facial expression, by some sensibility to mental and moral dishonesty, I was convinced, absolutely, at the end of an hour, that this man had not been to the North Pole, but was attempting to bluff the world.

This story illustrates how doubt and caution arise, and emphasizes the very great need of presenting one's whole proposition in such a way that it fits into the mental processes of the prospect.

Eliminating Effort in Acting.—This topic is discussed in detail in Chap. XXVIII.

THREE MISLEADING ASSUMPTIONS

Man is prone to base his assumptions upon one or two very exceptional cases instead of upon an average of all the cases. Because of this tendency decision is usually thought of as requiring effort, as coming suddenly, and as something that can be forced upon another.

There is no question but that sometimes it is very difficult to make a decision, that sometimes the decision seems to occur suddenly, and that sometimes the decision is forced through the influence of another. But far more often a decision develops gradually with little or no effort because of the inner mental processes of the individual and not because of external causes.

Effort is Not Always Characteristic of Decision.—William James¹ recognizes five types of decision. Only in the fifth type is effort felt.

In the first type of decision, *the reasonable type*, "the arguments for and against a given course seem gradually and almost insensibly to settle themselves in the mind and to end by leaving a clear balance in form of one alternative, which alternative we adopt without effort or constraint."

In the second type some *external factor*, as a secretary's reminder of an appointment, starts a man going in one way and he lets himself drift with a certain indifferent acquiescence. In the third type some *internal factor* starts a man going, such as the recollection of an engagement, and he accepts that alternative which is at the moment uppermost in the mind.

¹ JAMES, W., "Psychology," vol. II, chap. XXVI, 1890.

The fourth type of decision often ends deliberation as suddenly as the second or third type does.

It comes when in consequence of some outer experience or some inexplicable inward change, we suddenly pass from the easy and careless to the sober and strenuous mood, or possibly the other way. The whole scale of values of our motives and impulses then undergoes a change like that which a change of the observer's level produces on a view. The most sobering possible agents are objects of grief and fear. When one of these affects us, all "light fantastic" notions lose their motive power, all solemn ones find theirs multiplied manifold. The consequence is an instant abandonment of the more trivial projects with which we had been dallying, and an instant practical acceptance of the more grim and earnest alternative which till then could not extort our mind's consent. All those "changes of heart," "awakenings of conscience," etc., which make new men of so many of us may be classified under this head. The character abruptly rises to another level, and deliberation comes to an immediate end.

This fourth type of decision appears far more in selling than is generally recognized. In every sales convention there is at least one inspirational address. What is accomplished by it is the arousal of some broadly ethical aspiration which is more or less focused upon the salesman's work. The writer remembers a very interesting address to a group of printing executives in which it was pointed out that civilization rested upon the printing press and printed word. Ever since he has had a higher appreciation of this business. And in many an advertisement or sales presentation a new aspiration has been created which then affects the outcome of every problem under consideration (see Chap. XVI on Motivation).

In the fifth type of decision, the feeling that the evidence is all in, and that reason has balanced the books, may be present or absent. But in either case we feel, in deciding, as if we ourselves by our own wilful act inclined the beam: in the former case by adding our living effort to the weight of the logical reason which, taken alone, seems powerless to make the act discharge; in the latter by a kind of creative contribution of something instead of a reason which does a reason's work. The slow, dead heave of the will that is felt in these instances makes a class of them altogether different subjectively from all the three preceding classes . . . If examined closely, its chief difference from the three former cases appears to be that in those cases the mind at the moment of deciding on the triumphant alternative dropped the other one wholly or nearly out of sight, whereas here both alternatives are steadily held in view, and in the very act of murdering the vanquished possibility the chooser realizes how much in that instant he is making himself lose. It is deliberately driving a thorn into one's flesh;

and the sense of *inward effort* with which the act is accomplished is an element which sets the fifth type of decision in strong contrast with the previous three varieties, and makes of it an altogether and peculiar sort of mental phenomenon.

James goes on to add that which it is desired to emphasize, namely:

. . . the immense majority of human decisions are decisions without effort. In comparatively few of them, in most people, does effort accompany the final act. We are, I think, misled into supposing that effort is more frequent than it is, by the fact that *during* deliberation we so often have a feeling of how great an effort it would take to make a decision *now*. Later, after the decision had made itself with ease, we recollect this and erroneously suppose the effort also to have been made.

Suddenness is Not Always a Characteristic of Decision.—Many a proposition is accepted or rejected as soon as presented. In many another case a proposition is carefully considered, pro and con, for some time, and then decided with an effect of suddenness after all. From this fact that the decision seems to crystallize at one certain instant there has arisen the doctrine of the *psychological moment*. According to this there is a definite point in a sales presentation when the close must be made; and attempts to close before or after this point will be futile. Practical application of the doctrine necessitates that the salesman continue with his presentation until the psychological moment occurs, and then close "with a bang." The chief difficulty is to recognize and seize the all-important moment when it comes.

The real problem seems to us much deeper. Although a decision may be made suddenly, it is nevertheless made as the natural result of certain mental processes within the mind of the prospect. There is no magic in the psychological moment of itself. Unless the salesman has succeeded in guiding the prospect along a line of thought leading to favorable decision there is no right instant to close. Let the salesman first be sure of how the decision will be made, and then be ready to take advantage of the moment of crystallization.

Decision Cannot Invariably Be Forced upon a Person.—In history, a distinction is made between the *cause* of some event, and the *occasion* for that event. Take the Civil War, for example. Historians point to the struggle over States' Rights as one of the causes of that war, whereas the occasion of the war was

the firing on Fort Sumpter. The people of today are too close to the Great World War to understand fully the causes that led up to it, but the occasion was the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria by a Serbian.

This distinction between occasion and cause is essential to the correct understanding of historical movements. If certain events had not occurred, Fort Sumpter would not have been fired on; or even if it had been fired on, the Civil War would not have resulted. And similarly, if conditions in Europe had been otherwise the assassination of Ferdinand would probably not have precipitated the World War.

To understand the behavior of an individual, it is important to take account equally of cause and occasion. What the person is thinking about, what he is planning to do, what he wants to do, are all elements that make up the cause of his next action. What happens to him or what is said to him may precipitate action or not depending upon the relationship of this occasion to the causes for action that are present in his mind.

Man does not do absolutely what he pleases. Nor on the other hand is he inert except when stirred into action by something in his environment. His behavior can best be described by the single word "interaction." Each act is the resultant of his environment and his mental make up at that moment. Occasion and cause (or want) together determine behavior.

When occasion brings want to mind, it seems as though the occasion is that which forces action. So when cigars are seen and bought, the cigars, it is said, stimulated smoking. But when occasion occurs after the want is in mind, it seems as though the occasion is that which was sought for. So when there is a desire to smoke, cigars are sought. But in both cases there would be no action unless both occasion and want were present. To see cigars does not cause smoking if the person does not want to smoke.

Because all this is true, it behooves one who desires to influence another to consider what wants exist within the mind of the prospect before presenting occasions. To say, "Buy Sunsweet Prunes," is futile unless the person has certain wants which in some way or other can be satisfied by buying the prunes.

Just as it has been seen that one tends to remember "effort" experienced in a few cases and to think of all decisions as involving

effort, and just as a tendency exists to overemphasize the factor of suddenness in a decision, so also there is a tendency to recall the comparatively few cases when it was necessary to react whether the desire existed or not, and to imagine that in every case an individual can be driven in some way or other to buy.

The false notion comes largely from those cases where the individual responds to an occasion such as sneezing when his nose is tickled, running when a bull comes toward him, or reading advertisements on billboards out of a car window. In all these cases there exists very strong habits which naturally cause action when properly stimulated. The aim in advertising is to establish a habit so that whenever an occasion occurs a purchase will be made. But until such a habit is established it is folly to suppose that any occasion can be presented which will "force" the action. It is just as foolish as to expect a light to flash on whenever a push button is taken out of its container at the hardware store and is pushed. Until the push button is wired to an electric bulb no light will appear, and similarly until a habit is acquired no action will result when the occasion is encountered.

A man can then be "forced" to act as desired if wants that lead to that desired action are aroused and an appropriate occasion for acting presented, which is equivalent to saying, he can be forced to do what he wants to do. But he cannot be forced to act through presenting advertisements emphasized by large space, or by brilliant colors, or by other mechanical ways; nor can he be forced to buy by yelling at him or by the use of selling stunts.

But if the man is more or less sold but still hesitating as to just what to do, it is true that some external act on the part of the seller or some additional incitement may be so presented as to initiate action. Further discussion of all this is reserved for Chap. XXVIII on Closing a Sale.

Questions

1. Actual demonstration is impossible in advertising. Through the use of illustrations and copy a fair substitute is possible. Note the advertisements reproduced in the text which lead the reader to imagine an actual demonstration. How is this accomplished?

2. What causes a prospect to become cautious? How can caution be eliminated?

3. What is usually meant by the term "psychological moment?" What is the true significance of the term?
4. How far can a seller "force" a prospect to buy?
5. What factors are favorable to action? What are unfavorable?
6. Recall to mind some commodity you have considered buying but have not yet purchased. Record all the pros and cons. Why haven't you yet bought?

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CHAPTER XIV

SATISFACTION—IMMEDIATE AND FUTURE

Man's life is spent in satisfying wants. But momentary satisfaction is not sufficient. Too often it is found to involve unpleasant consequences. And so as man grows older he is more and more careful to consider whether a proposed action will bring him future satisfaction in addition to immediate satisfaction.

This distinction between immediate and future satisfaction is fundamental in selling. And it is one that is not so clearly recognized today as it should be.

Wants and Needs.—A writer in a recent issue of *Barron's* states the following:

In truth, Ambassador Harvey pictured Great Britain . . . as measuring its expenditures by *needs* and not by *wants*, or fancied wants. Here is the dull and commonplace answer, not at all sensational or picturesque but true and fine, a tribute to a great nation's industry and self-denial.

The two terms "want" and "need" are here set over against each other and have the respective meanings which it is desired to convey. An object is wanted because of the desire for immediate satisfaction; it is needed because of future consequences, *i.e.*, because in the future one will suffer dissatisfaction if he has not secured the object.

A *want* may accordingly be defined as *the present lack of some satisfaction*, whereas a *need* is *the lack of something to be without which will cause dissatisfaction some time in the future*.

The story is told of a lady who, after addressing munition workers on "War Thrift," asked if anyone had anything to say.

One girl arose and said: "Yes, I have something to s'y. Savin's is all right and very good, but I want to tell yees that my mother never in her life saw a whole roast chicken till I brought it home the first Sunda' after my first pay day, and I want to tell yees that my mother's going to have a whole roast chicken every Sunda' as long as I can buy it." She then added: "I always had to buy the cheapest blouses made, and at last I bought a silk blouse, and my young man came home on a furlough. He looked at me and said, 'Why, Maggie, what have ye done to yerself? I never saw

ye look like that!" Then, with a challenge in her voice, she added: "I want to s'y that, savin's or no savin's, as long as he talks like that I'm goin' to buy silk blouses!"

Maggie's recent purchases are an expression of her wants. To put her savings in a bank, on the other hand, would be consideration of her needs.

De Weese¹ wrote in 1921 as follows:

About ten years ago I wrote a book on advertising, and in that book I defined advertising as "the art of creating a new *want*." I have criticized this definition in many public addresses. I have said it was inadequate—that it did not define the real purpose of advertising. Now I take it all back. The definition I wrote ten years ago describes at least 90 per cent of all modern advertising effort. In other words, 90 per cent of all advertising skill is employed in selling things you don't need. Surely no one *needs* a Kodak, and yet advertising has filled the minds of millions with a desire to possess a Kodak, thus promoting education along artistic lines, adding to the joy and happiness of living, putting Rochester on the map, creating employment for thousands, and adding millions to the wealth of the country. Surely no home *needs* a Victrola—you can get along very well without it—but advertising has carried the songs of the common people and the music of grand opera into millions of homes, making the struggle for existence a little easier and lighter and at the same time building a colossal industry in a certain New Jersey city.

A year later Woolf² expressed the same thought in these words:

Somebody raised the question the other day as to what was the most important "how" in advertising.

Stripped down to its veriest fundamental, there appears to be only one big "how" in the whole art-and-science of advertising.

And that is, "How to create human wants." Without the existence of a want, there can be no selling transaction.

Compared with this, everything else in advertising is secondary. No advertising campaign can be successful if it fails to make the public *want* that thing which we have to sell.

This principle is obvious and that is why it deserves emphasis. It is so wholly evident, as a matter of fact, as to be frequently overlooked. It is probably true that we all have a tendency at times to become immersed in certain other aspects of the advertising question to the exclusion of this great fundamental "how."

The subject is worthy of our constant study. There is no phase of advertising and selling that offers a richer reward for mental effort. The future growth of advertising as an effective business force will be measured entirely by its efficiency in the matter of human wants.

¹ DE WEESE, T. A., "The Art of Creating a Want," *Printers' Ink*, Oct. 20, 1921.

² WOOLF, J. D., "The Problem of Creating Desire," *J. Walter Thompson News Bulletin*, April, 1922.

In contradistinction to such views many have recently urged the necessity of selling in terms of needs. In the Report of the Committee on Scientific Salesmanship of the National Association of Life Underwriters at the 1922 convention appear the following statements.

The basis of a sale is the satisfying of a need . . . A little reflection will show that by presenting the value of life insurance to satisfy needs, sales will result—more quickly; more surely; for larger amounts; in insurance that will be lasting; will be foundation for future sales; will secure interest instead of antagonism in the home; will inspire more confidence in the salesman in presenting and urging his case; and will win the confidence of clients and the public . . .

Obviously, all of us are most quickly influenced by an appeal to our own interests. Even if the need is not distinctly appreciated so as to become a want, anyone can be quickly interested in any subject when appealed to on the ground of his own need. The sick man does not long keep the physician waiting outside the door.

Insurance needs are fundamental. They are to supply necessities—not superfluities or even luxuries. The claim of insurance to a man's own interest is stronger than the appeal to buy a painting, a jewel, or a luxury.

Nothing is so necessary to the comfort and happiness of an individual as the welfare of his wife, children, relatives, his own old age, his credit or the prosperity of his business, the payment of his taxes, and the proper settlement of his estate. In all of these, life insurance can render him a distinct service and, in most, one that cannot be rendered by any substitute. The life insurance man who confidently and intelligently believes that this service rendered a prospect will satisfy a real need will be standing on absolutely sure ground. He, himself, will have the confidence that will command the confidence of his prospect.

Who is right? Should selling be done in terms of wants or needs, or is there some compromise involving both?

The Overlapping of Wants and Needs.—Regardless of how anyone would distinguish between wants and needs he will agree that wants and needs overlap. He will admit that there are, first, some things which are wanted by some particular individual but which are not needed, as candy by a sick child (class A); second, there are some things which are both wanted and needed, as bread and butter by a hungry child (class B); and, third, there are some things which are not wanted but are needed, as castor oil by a sick child (class C).

Objects in class A comprise the temporary pleasures of life, those things which bring enjoyment but no definite benefit, such

as candy or the theater. A person wants them, but he cannot justify them to himself as things essential to his welfare.

Objects in class B bring immediate satisfaction and at the same time can be justified as of utility in the future. Analysis of any such object will show, however, that it is viewed in two ways—it is wanted and it is needed. At luncheon time, a man wants to eat and at the same time he considers he must eat or suffer a headache in the afternoon. The want is fundamental; it cannot be explained any more than the want to love his wife, or children, to secure approval, to fear death, etc. But the need can always be explained by reasons. He needs the luncheon in order to escape a headache.

Many luxuries must be included in class B, for they are not only wanted but they are needed in the sense that tomorrow and for years to come they will be wanted. So a pearl necklace is desired not merely for today's pleasure but also for future enjoyment.

Objects in class C bring no immediate pleasure, but can be justified as of utility in the future. Here are included many of the obligations, the responsibilities, the actions that are owed to society, etc. Very few of them are ever sought until they have been transferred from class C to class B; in other words, until they are viewed as wanted in some way or other they are neglected.

Dictionary definitions of the two words give little warrant for the distinctions that have been made here, for the two words are explained in much the same way. But there is a real necessity for such a distinction.

Characteristics of Needs.—First of all, a need is an expression of future consequences.

Second, a need may or may not be known. So a child may be utterly unaware of his need to eat, feeling only the want. And a man, sick with malaria, not aware that quinine will cure malaria, has a need for quinine although he does not know it.

Third, because a need is an expression of future consequences and may exist whether known or unknown, a need is a fairly constant factor over a considerable period of time. A want, on the other hand, is constantly fluctuating, depending upon whether a person happens to have it in mind at the moment or not. Thus

the need to eat has reference to man's inability to live without food, and not to the eating of a particular meal. The need of a child for education is an expression of all the consequences that may result in after life, and not to any particular lesson today.

Fourth, the strength of a need depends upon the consequences that are involved. In a general sense, the sum total of dissatisfaction that will result if object A is not obtained as compared with object B determines the relative strength of the need for A as compared with that for B. But such calculations have little weight because they are too remote from what people want. Thus 100 meals in old age would certainly be rated as a greater need than a dress suit for tomorrow's dance. Yet how many would act in terms of such a calculation? Practically speaking, a need has no dynamic force in everyday life until it is felt in terms of a want.

Fifth, although needs are fairly constant factors and are expressions of future consequences, yet the kind, quality, and quantity of needs vary with social status, occupation, education, and purposes in life. What are needs of many in the United States are luxuries in some other countries. What are recognized as needs by the wealthy may be similarly luxuries for the poor of the same community.

A need is, accordingly, an estimate of what must be obtained now in order that satisfaction will be secured in the future. Strictly speaking, a need is intellectually determined, not emotionally felt. C. J. Rockwell has defined need as follows:

Our needs are those things, or services, which contribute to our best interest, the improvement of our situation, or the discharge of our responsibilities. They may exist without recognition—may not be anything we want—and are not necessarily absolutely required. They have an economic or social basis, a somewhat ethical atmosphere, and differ from wants which have a purely feeling or emotional origin.

Wants the Basis for Securing Action.—De Weese and Woolf are correct when they emphasize that men and women act because of wants and not needs. Frankly, people *should* act because of needs and not wants. But they do not do what they ought to until they have also come to want to do so. The action comes because of the want and not the need.

Smith¹ illustrates this when discussing why people buy worthless stock.

The great body of persons victimized through oil stocks and mining stocks are salaried men and women, small merchants, inexperienced people with incomes not quite large enough to satisfy their tastes—all that great class of mankind that wants to be rich and sees no chance of achieving this end without some quasi-miraculous stroke of fortune.

Let us take the man slaving in another man's office, factory, store, or shop at a fairly decent salary. He can live respectably on his earnings. He can even put by a little for the rainy day. His family is in no need whatever, but—! His wife envies the fur coat and the motor car of the woman next door. His children have not the luxuries that are heaped upon those of other men. He is tired of slaving. He sees no bright prospect ahead. Promotion is slow, the cost of living high, the possibility of a competence remote, and the chance of wealth utterly out of reason, unless— Just here I step in with my promises of thousands of dollars in dividends on hundreds of dollars invested. I cannot promise or suggest too much to such a man. He wants no 6 per cent a year. He has no capital to make such a return worth considering. He asks for 20 per cent a month, 50 per cent, a hundred, a thousand. Nothing is too grotesque, for he has the fever of getting rich.

Now, you can lecture such a man all you like. You can work off all the logic of all the generations on him. You can even point out to him that he has speculated and been trimmed before. All of no avail. He is restless, yearning, hungry. He will take another flyer in spite of hell and high water. All I have to do is to get to him, arouse his interest, titillate his greed, and convince him. Then I walk off with his savings.

Here is the secret of selling worthless stock to people who have been stung before, who would advise any friend not to buy, but who themselves buy again and again. They possess a very great want, they see no way of overcoming the obstacles to satisfying it except by taking a big chance and so they take it.

The chief problem in selling is, "How to create a want that will sell the goods." Every other problem is secondary to this one. In fact, all other problems put together do not equal this one in importance. Unless a want can be satisfied by the commodity, the goods cannot be sold.

Needs the Basis of Permanent Satisfaction.—Whenever a purchase is made the buyer feels some want and believes the commodity will satisfy that want. The act of purchasing results because of the existence of a certain mental state. Later on the

¹ SMITH, E. H., "Fool's Gold—How I Sold You Your Fake Mining Stock," *Collier's*, Dec. 3, 1921.

ideas and feelings that constituted that mental state are no longer in mind. At any such subsequent moment the buyer may review his purchase and when he does so he may or may not be satisfied. If he is satisfied whenever he reviews a purchase he will buy again, or at least recommend the commodity to others. But if he is not satisfied he will not buy again.

Repeat orders are consequently dependent not upon the satisfaction felt at the moment of buying but upon the satisfaction that will come to mind whenever the commodity is thought of. Repeat orders result when selling is carried on in terms of needs, for a need is an expression of future consequences.

The quotation from the Report of the Committee on Scientific Salesmanship (page 219) was undoubtedly written from the point of view of selling in terms of permanent satisfaction. But in their enthusiasm the committee has gone too far—they have overlooked the fact that at the moment a prospect buys he must be acting in terms of one or more wants. They have disregarded this fact in their zeal to sell so that there will be permanent satisfaction.

The truly complete goal in selling is *to lead a prospect to want what he needs*. He will then buy in terms of his wants: afterwards, he will be satisfied because he possesses what he needs.

"High-pressure selling" is the exact opposite of selling in terms of needs. Such selling is carried on with no thought at all of needs. It is characteristic of certain salesmen who are able to arouse a great deal of emotion. Its defect is that after the buyer "comes to" he is dissatisfied and frequently cancels the order. A life insurance salesman reported that he had lost, on the average, \$25,000 of business every year after he had received checks for the policies. He had lost this business because his prospects had changed their minds and refused to be examined or frankly demanded the check back. Analysis of this salesman's methods showed that he gave the prospect no reasons for buying. He relied entirely upon arousing emotion. Had he made it perfectly clear to his prospects just what benefits would accrue to their families and to themselves from the policy, he would not have lost most of these cases, if any at all.

The rôle of reasons in selling will be discussed in a subsequent chapter. At this point it should be noted that the need for a

commodity can always be expressed in terms of reasons. And usually it is very good policy, if not absolutely necessary, that the salesman makes sure that the prospect has clearly in mind why he has bought before the salesman leaves him. Later on the prospect may justify his purchase in terms of these reasons, even if he does not then feel any particular want.

Needs the Basis for a Salesman's Confidence.—There is probably not a salesman in the world who would not reach a business man if he came to tell that man his wife had been injured in an accident, or that his house was on fire. He would know that regardless of what happened in getting to the business man all would be forgiven afterwards in gratitude for the service rendered. It is largely because the salesman does not appreciate the real service he will render that he lacks confidence and does not insist on seeing his prospect and on making his prospect listen.

A salesman will be fortified against temporary rebuffs whenever he can satisfy himself that what he is selling is actually needed by the prospect, and that long after the sale has been made the prospect will say, "I am glad I bought that." It is not enough to believe in one's product, though that is essential. The salesman must believe that each individual he calls upon needs that product. When he feels that way he has a confidence that he cannot obtain in any other way. Unfortunately, this statement does not apply to some salesmen—those who are willing to sell anything and to anyone so long as there is a good profit. But the vast majority of salesmen are honest and conscientious. And they must believe in what they are doing in order to succeed.

Needs the Basis of Public Confidence.—A business that satisfies wants but not needs is permitted to continue so long as it does not do any particular harm and is carried on according to the laws of the country. But if it does cause harm public opinion gradually crystallizes against it and eventually it is legislated out of existence. So lotteries, gambling, and drinking are no longer permitted. They served no useful end and they brought about economic and moral waste. Likewise, in times of great social stress as during the late war, businesses run to satisfy only wants may be discriminated against.

On the other hand, the more thoroughly the public appreciates the need that is supplied by a business, the more the public will support that business, other things being equal. The significant thing is not that the business does satisfy a need but that the public appreciates the fact. Much of the public antagonism to railroads is due to past ill treatment but most of this would be forgotten if the public appreciated just what the railroads meant to them.

Emphasizing needs is accordingly a valuable thing to do in order to head off hostile legislation that may suddenly be concocted and in order to cause a friendly feeling on the part of the public to all the representatives of the business. One manufacturing company a few years ago advertised in the street cars of the city the high quality of its goods and the service rendered to peoples all over the world. This was done not to sell goods but to make everyone in the city (including the company's own employees) think well of the company. As a result the labor turnover showed a marked decrease. Everyone likes to feel that he is doing something worth while in the world. That feeling is decidedly intensified when it is known that many others feel the same way about the work.

Needs the Basis of the Ethics of Selling.—The ethics of selling, as of all social relations, are not yet standardized. There are some practices which are unethical; some so wrong that laws have been framed against them. There are other practices about which the best judges are divided in opinion as to whether they are unethical or not.

As a general principle selling is ethical when goods are sold in terms of the needs of the prospect. In such cases the salesman has rendered a real service and the prospect realizes this is the case whenever he thinks about the matter.

Obviously, this rule does not apply to the selling of those articles that are wanted but not needed, such as fireworks, theater tickets, tobacco, and every sort of unproductive merchandise. Here some other standard for ethical practice must be set up.

Today, the chief concern is with the factor of honesty, with making sure that the buyer receives that which he believes he is buying. But there are other considerations which sooner or later must be taken into account. For example, everyone would

condemn a salesman who induced a widow to buy luxuries, no matter how worth their price, until all of her savings were used up, and particularly would the salesman be condemned if he knew the amount of her savings. Yet there is no law against such practice except in the case of selling to minors and insane persons. If a dozen salesmen independently accomplished this same end their combined actions should be as unethical as in the case of the single salesman, for the effect upon the widow would be equally calamitous. But the matter is not viewed in this light today. It is assumed that if the widow wants to buy jewelry and is charged a fair price for it, the sale is ethical. It is a nice question just where the line can be drawn.

At the present stage in the development of an ethics of selling, the emphasis is upon honesty—*honesty of statement as to the nature of the goods for sale*. Gross dishonesty can usually be punished by existing laws. Certain forms of dishonesty have been with us so long that they have been ignored by society. Recently *Printers' Ink* and the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World have brought about the enactment of state laws to punish dishonest advertising and have established Vigilance Committees throughout the country actively to enforce the regulations which prohibit "any assertion, representation, or statement of fact which is untrue, deceptive, or misleading." Many individuals have been prosecuted and convicted of fraudulent advertising. In some places these committees are called Better Business Commissions or Bureaus. Most of the reforms they accomplished have been done through educating business men. Those not familiar with this work would be amazed if they learned of the extent of this endeavor to bring about honesty in advertising. The movement is one of the most inspiring of the day. And it is typical not alone of advertising men but of nearly all business organizations. In practically every group one will find some consideration being given to ethical codes and discussions of what is proper business practice and what is not.

Insistence upon greater honesty has undoubtedly been brought about through the realization on the part of business men that dishonesty did not pay them in the long run, a realization which Russell¹ speaks of as the law "that only wares that are worth

¹ RUSSELL, T., "Commercial Advertising," p. 4, 1920.

the purchaser's while to buy are worth the vendor's while to advertise." A second cause for this interest in honesty has been the further realization that the dishonesty of others whose advertisements appeared alongside of the honest man's advertisement, injured him indirectly through undermining public confidence in all advertising. And a third cause has been the unwillingness of many to be dishonest in advertising any more than they would be dishonest in any other way toward their customers.

Not very much has been accomplished as yet with regard to *exaggeration*. It is still viewed as more or less the prerogative of the salesman to wax eloquent over his goods and to speak of them as "the best and purest of its kind" or as "better, much better, than others, and the best obtainable anywhere." Still it is recognized by many authorities that such expressions weaken the strength of an advertisement because they very subtly undermine the confidence of the reader in everything that is stated. And during the last few years many associations of merchants and manufacturers have discussed the subject and in some instances have adopted a standard terminology for describing their goods. The Pure Food Law and the Federal Trade Commission have been responsible for much progress along these lines. In a case brought by the latter the Supreme Court decided (1922) that trade names and labels must not convey to the purchasing public an inaccurate description of the materials or ingredients of the products. It is not always easy to decide, however, whether a term is misleading or not, for to those who are informed a word may be understood as indicating an adulterated product whereas to the uninformed public it may stand for the pure product.

A more serious type of dishonesty in selling is that which comes under the heading of *implied misrepresentation*. The actual words used can be interpreted as conveying a fact but they are usually interpreted in another and misleading sense. Thus, if a distributor of a food product advertises that his goods contain no arsenic he gives the impression that the goods of at least one of his competitors do contain that poison. And the lurid page description of two successful gushers between which the advertising company's property is located gives the impression that the stock for sale is

in a gusher-to-be, even though the company's property may be several miles from either of the described oil wells. It is actually quite easy to adhere technically to the truth but give a false impression just because the human mind does not necessarily think in a logical manner. So the statement, "No watchman here between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m." means just that and no more, but most readers would assume from it that a watchman is on duty in the day time.

The most serious problem relative to the ethics of selling is not primarily concerned with the honesty of statement but rather with the motive of the seller—a motive that need not be revealed until the very last step in the process of influencing others. For example, the Typographical Union in Pittsburgh lost a strike because public opinion did not support it. Later several advertisements were run in the newspapers of that city in order to cause the public to adopt a friendly attitude toward the union and its purposes. When this union calls another strike one or more announcements of their purpose so worded as to recall to mind the impressions made by the newspaper advertisements will enable the union to "cash in" on the favorable attitude developed by the advertisements. And the result will tend to be a sentiment in favor of the union because of the advertisements without much reference to the merits of the strike.

Today such a strategy of selling or of propaganda is not viewed with the concern it merits. But it is possible to develop favorable sentiment in a quite innocuous manner and later direct that sentiment toward the carrying out of a program, suddenly announced, which may be either advantageous or detrimental to the best interests of the country. And the danger lies in the fact that action will follow the announcement of the program too quickly for the other side of the case to be presented. Great Britain's declaration of war was to a considerable extent due to the sentiment that had been developed in that country that a treaty to which they were a party must be observed. So when such a treaty was broken by Germany's march into Belgium the country acted largely in terms of its sentiment. As Sir Edward Gray said, "My God, what else could we do!"

But this is a digression. To return to the terms under which a sale should be made; is it ethical to develop a want that does not

now exist? A prominent advertising man wrote a few years ago that the motive of advertising is to develop a need or desire, ignoring necessity.

The advertiser bends his energies to the task of persuading people to purchase his goods. He does not concern himself about their utility in economic life. He often not only manufactures the goods, but, through his advertising, he essays to manufacture the demand for them—to create, in other words, a necessity in the lives of the people that has no economic or moral basis in fact.

Russell¹ believes it is justifiable and useful to create a new want when the standard of living is raised by it.

No one would die if the telephone were abolished. But the telephone raises the standard of convenience. A civilized man differs from a savage just as much by his wants as by his inventions . . . The vacuum-cleaner or the player-piano is a better example. These things are not essentials of life; but neither are shirts, collars, or even trousers . . . Now it is certain that the only way to make the vacuum-cleaner, which is a great labor-saver, . . . is to make it in great numbers. The small parts of which these machines are composed would be very expensive to make by hand. Special machines and tools, costing a good deal of money, must be made to turn them out by the thousand. But it certainly would have been very hazardous to install this machinery, unless a quick and an assured market could be foreseen. The only way in which the cleaner and the player-piano could be sold quickly, and at low selling expense, is by advertising them, so that the machinery could be operated economically and earn interest on its cost. If the inventors waited for the tardy growth of demand through recommendation, finance would eat up all the profits; unless the goods were sold at a heavy price they would cost more than they fetched. It is therefore certain that these commodities would not be produced so plentifully and so cheaply, without advertising.

The question as to whether it is ethical to create a new want, it seems to the writer, is still the question as to whether the goods are sold as a need or just as a mere want. Now a need is essentially that which is serviceable taking the future into account. If the new commodity will be useful in the future then it may be considered as a potential need, even if it is both sold and bought at the beginning as a mere want. The wireless telephone has been bought as pure want by thousands. But many would even now class it as a need. Probably some view it as just as necessary as many other things now recognized as necessities because it brings great happiness to a shut-in invalid.

¹ RUSSELL, T., *op. cit.*, p. 55.

Ethical selling is that in which the statements are true both as to what is said and what is left unsaid, and furthermore in which the prospect will experience satisfaction afterwards as well as at the moment of purchase.

Ethics and the Problem of Resales Are Thus Related.—To secure resales, selling must be done in terms of needs. And when a sale is made in terms of needs it is ethical. A study of the development in interest in ethics by business men will show that it very largely parallels the development in interest in "permanent satisfaction," "needs," "service," "good will," "trade-marks," "efficiency in selling," "training of salesmen," and the like. All are an outgrowth of the recent economic necessity to sell more goods in the face of increasing competition. As competition becomes greater the necessity for future sales becomes greater and that means more and more emphasis upon permanent satisfaction.

Ethical, Scientific Salesmanship.—Ethical, scientific selling is that where the *salesman sells the prospect what he needs but in terms of his wants*. If he attempts to sell what is needed in terms of needs alone, he will have a hard time closing his sales because people generally act in terms of wants and not needs. If he sells what the prospect wants without regard to his needs, the prospect will quite likely regret the purchase and will tend not to buy the product again nor any other product from that salesman.

How to make the prospect *want what he needs* will be discussed further in subsequent chapters.

Questions

1. Of what significance is the distinction between "want" and "need?"
2. What is meant by "high-pressure" selling?
3. Why is it important for sales managers to stress selling in terms of needs when needs were hardly considered a few years ago?
4. Why have business men recently become interested in codes of ethics?
5. Does selling in terms of needs require a higher type of salesman than selling without thought of needs? Explain.

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CHAPTER XV

RÔLES OF FEELING, SENTIMENT, GOODWILL

If a man feels pleasantly towards a commodity, as soon as it is thought of, he is much more likely to buy it than otherwise. That is axiomatic.

In the buying formula (Fig. 1) the element "pleasant feelings" appears twice. Both commodity and trade name should have pleasant feelings associated with them. Other things being equal, a home builder will buy brick instead of tile, if he likes brick the better; and he will buy from Jones instead of Smith, if he likes Jones the better. He will buy tile, and from Smith only if there are very good reasons, as, for example, a considerable saving in cost, a considerable saving in time of delivery, and the like.

HOW FEELING FOR AN OBJECT IS ACQUIRED

Feeling is not an attribute of an object. An object may be square or oblong, sweet or bitter, and so on, but it is not technically pleasant or unpleasant. In common language, an object is called "cute" or "dandy," and one says, "I like it," "I don't like it," etc. But this is only a short cut to the true statement that "I feel good when I see this object." Sufficient proof that objects are not pleasant or unpleasant *per se* is to be adduced from the fact that all people do not have the same reaction to a given object. A kitten may be gray, small, furry, and agile. Everyone who sees it must agree to that description. But some women will call it a darling and others will term it "horrid." The feeling of pleasantness or unpleasantness is a personal reaction; it is a way of feeling due to the appearance of the object and the attitude of the individual. If one is grouchy almost everything is unpleasant, and *vice versa*.

Doctors disagree as to the precise nature of feeling. It is sufficient to say here that one's feeling toward an object is due to past experiences with the object. If the object has satisfied

a person's wants in the past, if it is still capable of doing so in the future, he likes it; otherwise he is indifferent to it or he dislikes it. This means that a person may come to like what at first he dislikes, and *vice versa*.

There are three ways in which feeling becomes associated with an object. First, when object A is experienced at the same time as object B which arouses pleasantness or unpleasantness, object A tends to take on the same feeling tone. Later when A is experienced alone it tends to arouse this same feeling tone again. Thus a certain brand of candy may come to be especially liked because it has been eaten on some auspicious occasion. This *law of fusion* explains the effectiveness of Community Silverware advertising. People enjoy looking at the beautiful pictures and artistically displayed dining-room tables in the advertisements and much of that pleasant feeling becomes associated with the trade name of the knives and forks and spoons that are also seen in the advertisements.

Second, after an object has been used, the resulting satisfaction or dissatisfaction becomes associated with the object in the form of pleasantness or unpleasantness. Thus the sting of a bee causes a feeling of unpleasantness whenever a bee is seen or heard too close by. A brand of tires that has given especially good service becomes something that gives pleasure to talk about.

Third, the feeling aroused by day-dreaming about an object not yet possessed becomes attached to the object.

Feeling does not become attached to objects in any logical manner. Almost any spoon that is displayed frequently enough on beautiful table linen will come to be felt as beautiful. And almost any candy that is sold in *the best* and most ornate candy store in town will become the standard candy for that community.

ATMOSPHERE

Due to the law of fusion, the total artistic or emotional effect of an advertisement becomes more or less associated with the commodity advertised. What is added to an advertisement simply and solely to cause such a transfer of pleasant feeling is spoken of as *atmosphere*. The cut or the decorative border or part of the copy may constitute the atmosphere element. Even words have an atmosphere effect. Thus instead of using the

word "smell" which is ordinarily neutral, the word "fragrance" may be employed, which is suggestive of flowers grown in a garden, or "aroma" may be used which brings to mind agreeable things to eat or drink or smoke.

The Fatima Cigarette advertisement (Fig. 19) owes its strength almost entirely to the atmosphere caused by layout and illustration. Such advertising causes a liking for Fatimas without one's knowing why. Because of this *law of fusion* of elements into a total effect which then colors each element, it is important that advertising shall not appear alongside unpleasant matter. Patent medicine advertisements are helped by beautiful advertisements of women's dresses or feathers, but the latter are injured to just the extent the patent medicine advertisements are aided. Ugly pictures and unpleasant thoughts, and fear, dread, and disgust are all very dangerous elements to use in an advertisement for this reason. Their effect radiates out over the entire page and is apt to be attached to the product advertised instead of to the idea of not-using-the-product.

The cumulative effect of atmospheric advertising is to produce what is psychologically known as a "sentiment."

SENTIMENT

An Illustration of the Development of a Sentiment.—Mr. Hill of Cleveland was entertained by a friend at his club for lunch—in Pittsburgh. While eating, Hill asked, "Why did a city develop here at Pittsburgh?" Several explained it by the amount of coal found there, and by the transportation facilities afforded by the confluence of the Allegheny and the Monongahela Rivers forming the Ohio. At this point Mr. Hill awkwardly spilt the soup into his lap, and immediately felt chagrined and humiliated. On being asked what he thought of Pittsburgh, upon his return home, Hill replied with derogatory remarks, complaining of the water, the police system, the hotels, etc.

Interpreting this psychologically, it may be said that at the moment *before* he spilt the soup he was gathering ideas about Pittsburgh. It is quite likely that if Mr. Hill were called upon five years later to explain the cause of Pittsburgh's becoming a large city, he would advance the two ideas of coal and water transportation. He had associated them with the idea of Pitts-

burgh so that they formed a *complex idea*. But *after* spilling the soup a very different combination developed within his mind, called a *sentiment*. The unpleasant emotion of chagrin or mortification became associated with the idea of Pittsburgh. Consequently, whenever afterwards the thought of Pittsburgh came to him, the unpleasant emotion was aroused. Naturally, he disliked Pittsburgh. And so when asked his opinion of the city he found fault with it. He would never admit to his friends that he disliked Pittsburgh because he made a fool of himself and spilt soup in his lap at a club luncheon. But he would give rationalizations that would sound reasonable and would not injure himself and at the same time would give expression to the unpleasant sentiment within him. Many of the derogatory, "catty" remarks one makes are expression of dislike of a person who has injured one's pride in some way.

Definition of Sentiment.—A sentiment may be defined as a system of ideas emotionally toned. In the case of Mr. Hill the ideas about Pittsburgh's greatness and the uncomfortable emotion of humiliation have become fused together so that Hill cannot think the idea without experiencing the emotion.

An unpleasantly toned sentiment has been described and the course of its development traced. Such unpleasant sentiments have no place in selling and are the worst foes to business that can be imagined. But *pleasantly* toned sentiments are the ideal content of a customer's mind. And one of the peculiar functions of advertising is to develop such sentiments.

Further Examples of Sentiment.—The advertising of Community Silverware has already been considered in connection with the law of fusion. All the elements in the advertisement except the silverware itself constitute the atmosphere. They are inserted in order to cause a feeling of pleasantness to attach itself to the silverware. One presentation may have little effect upon the public. But constant repetition of such advertising establishes a sentiment in their minds. The final result is that wherever the trade name, "Community Silverware," is mentioned the person feels good and says, "I like it; it is beautiful."

Figure 29 illustrates an advertisement well designed to develop a sentiment about Gilbert clocks. One begins to feel cheerful and to think of the alarm clock as a companion, as one reads the

*Illustrated—modern mod-
el, thirty hour continuous
alarm. Height 6½ inches,
with artistic radium hands
and dial.*



Night Time

WHAT a comfortable feeling of safety in the steady, rhythmic companionship of a Gilbert Radium Clock telling time in the darkness of night. A faithful sentry visibly assuring you that "All's Well!"

Those using Gilbert Clocks gratefully appreciate their quiet, unobtrusive character. Made to keep accurate time with as little self-assertiveness as possible they are the ideal warders of the hours.

For more than a century this Company has been making good clocks at Winsted—clocks both silent and with voices. There are clocks with plain or radium dials, Cathedral gongs, Normandy chimes, and business-like alarm clocks. All are worthy products of a group of people who have been clock makers for generations.

Now this model, thirty hour continuous alarm. Height 6 inches, with plain hands and dial.



Hand-rubbed mahogany finish for desk or dresser. Dependable thirty hour movement. Height 5 inches and width 8 inches.



Rich mahogany finish, hand-rubbed, with eight day pendulum type movement and Cathedral gong. Height 9½ inches and width 21 inches.



William L. Gilbert Clock Co.
Winsted, Conn.

"Makers of good clocks since 1807"

Gilbert Clocks

FIG. 29.—Type of advertisement that arouses pleasant feelings and, if such advertising is continued, pleasant sentiment.



When emergency demands

At 1:32 P.M. a rush order from Kansas City was received over our private telegraph wires for 100 flues cut to special length. By 2:30 P.M. the machines were cutting the tubes. A fast motor truck delivered the consignment to the Express Company's Kansas City car the same afternoon and the flues arrived in Kansas City the following morning. Less than 24 hours from the time the order was given until the goods, cut to size, were delivered 500 miles away.

This is but one incident typical of Ryerson Steel-Service when called upon to meet a customer's emergency. Express shipments are the unusual rather than the rule—but when emergency demands—Ryerson will go the limit.

Steel—in any size, form or quantity, delivered to a customer when he needs it—that is Ryerson Steel-Service.

Write for Ryerson Stock List—the key to imitate Steel

ESTABLISHED 1842

INCORPORATED 1899

JOSEPH T. RYERSON & SON

CHICAGO	ST. LOUIS	DETROIT	BUFFALO	NEW YORK
BRANCH OFFICES:		DENVER	HOUSTON	
MILWAUKEE		MINNEAPOLIS	NEWARK	

RYERSON STEEL-SERVICE

FIG. 30.—Arouses pleasant feeling and, if such advertising is continued, pleasant sentiment.

copy. One advertisement may be soon forgotten but many advertisements will form an association. The advertising of Big Ben has been most successful in this respect.

Consider the advertising of Tiffany—a unique style, often condemned. The company tells really nothing about their goods; they certainly give no reasons why anyone should buy from them.



The Century— where men of affairs meet

ONE REASON for the great popularity of the *Twentieth Century Limited* among men of affairs, traveling between New York and Chicago, is that they are accustomed to meet on this train—as they do on the great Atlantic liners—people of distinction from the four corners of the world.

"Century" Westbound
New York 7.45 p.m.
Chicago 9.45 a.m.



"Century" Eastbound
Chicago 11.40 p.m.
New York 9.40 a.m.

For Reservations: Telephone Vanderbilt 3200

NEW YORK CENTRAL

FIG. 31.—Arouses pleasant feeling and, if such advertising is continued, pleasant sentiment.

But all of their advertisements express the feeling of exclusiveness, of prestige, of superiority. And when a man comes to buy jewelry he is impressed with the fact that he would rather buy from them than anyone else and the recipient of the gift also would rather have the gift come from there than anywhere else. A sentiment has been developed through this advertising—the few ideas about the goods and the company are fused with pleasurable feelings. If a person stops and analyzes why he wants to buy a ring there, he has to admit he has not a single real reason; but he does *want* to buy there. Few buyers ever do stop and analyze; if they want the goods and want to buy at a particular store that is enough.

It might be agreed that it is easy to make people feel pleasantly about silverware and jewelry, but difficult with products like iron and steel.

A jobber of steel products on the Pacific coast called the writer's attention to the advertisement of Joseph T. Ryerson & Son (see Fig. 30), and said that that advertising was very effective. "Those people often get business away from me," he said, "even when their bids are higher than mine. People like to deal with them more than with me." Advertisements like

the one illustrated here establish a pleasant sentiment around the name of Ryerson. Such advertisements should not be, and are not, run by Ryerson all the time. But they have a real place in a complete sales program.

Phoebe Snow is a character nationally known around whom is built a sentiment very favorable to the Lackawanna Railroad. The advertisement of the New York Central Railroad in Fig. 31 is effective because it associates the railroad, particularly "The Century" with the pleasure of meeting "men of affairs."

Atmosphere versus Sentiment.—Consider an hypothetical case. Suppose a commodity arouses a certain amount of pleasant feeling in the average reader, say 10 per cent, for the sake of the clearness of numbers. When atmosphere is used to set this commodity off in an advertisement, the percentage of pleasant feeling is raised to, say, 50 per cent. The next time the article is seen alone it arouses 15 per cent of pleasant feeling. This increase from 10 to 15 per cent represents the permanent effect of seeing this one advertisement. If the advertisement is seen frequently enough the percentage of pleasant feeling that is experienced when the commodity is seen alone, may be raised to 50 per cent or higher. This increase in percentage from 10 to 50 per cent is due to the development of a habit of feeling pleasantly toward the commodity whenever it is experienced. Such a habit is called a sentiment.

Unpleasant Sentiments Are More Easily Formed Than Pleasant Ones.—George Eliot has one of her characters say, "I think I dislike what I don't like more than I like what I like." This is quite true. Anger, fear, dread of disapproval, disgust, and the like are very strong emotions. When associated with a person or object they make us want to injure or get away from whatever arouses them. They cause unpleasant sentiments. The emotions that cause pleasant sentiments are love of the opposite sex and of children, desire for approval, and also the emotions connected with beauty, eating, hunting, curiosity, and the like. Love is undoubtedly very strong, but the other pleasant emotions seem to be much weaker than the unpleasant emotions. For this cause and also because there are more opportunities to arouse unpleasant emotions than pleasant ones, an individual is

quite likely to develop far more unpleasant sentiments than pleasant ones.

This is one of the most unfortunate aspects of human nature—that men hate more than they love. The present turmoil the world finds itself in is largely due to this—every nation is so obsessed with the idea of getting even with its enemies that it has little time or inclination left to do other things of direct value to itself. And in the field of buying and selling it is also true that one failure of goods to come up to expectation makes more impression upon a purchaser than many past successes; also that one discourteous remark by a salesman is remembered and repeated when real courtesy has been more or less accepted as one's due.

Sentiments the Cause of Many Actions.—It is well-recognized that it is practically useless to argue with another about politics or religion. The explanation of this is that a man's political views are due to a sentiment. Whenever the party, its platform, or leaders are attacked he grows angry and flies to their rescue. If there were no sentiment, new ideas would be absorbed and would tend to eliminate old contradictory ones. But new ideas cannot affect emotions except to stir them up. To cause any number of people to desert their party the old sentiment must be broken up and a new one established—not an easy thing to do under ordinary circumstances. The novelist Ibanez described very vividly in *The New York Times* (May 17, 1920) how loyalty to Caranza was broken up through ridicule. Here the sentiment was destroyed by counter emotion. Ibanez says Caranza was laughed out of Mexico despite the expenditure of millions in propaganda. His candidate for the presidency, Bonillas, was nicknamed "Flor de Te" (Tea Flower) and the opposition reported one ridiculous story after another about him. No amount of explaining the truth of these stories did any good for by the time they were printed, Mexico was laughing about the next concocted anecdote.

Each individual has many sentiments and as they are aroused, he acts very largely in terms of them despite arguments to the contrary. The ideal of selling is to make the prospect "loyal" to the product in the same sense he is loyal to his country, his church, his fraternal organization, his newspaper, his city or

suburb, his family, his college And many a commodity has such loyalty established in the minds of thousands of men and women.

Walter Lippmann¹ has very forcefully and clearly called attention to the point under discussion here. He writes:

I am arguing that the *pattern of stereotypes* (a broader term than sentiment including all habits of thinking) at the center of our codes largely determines what group of facts we shall see, and in what light we shall see them. That is why, with the best will in the world, the news policy of a journal tends to support its editorial policy; why a capitalist sees one set of facts, and certain aspects of human nature, literally sees them; his socialist opponent another set and other aspects; and why each regards the other as unreasonable or perverse, when the real difference between them is a difference of perception. That difference is imposed by the difference between the capitalist and socialist pattern of stereotypes.

GOODWILL

Goodwill has been a puzzle to many business men. A prominent advertiser wrote some time ago, as follows: "Such concerns as Armour, Eastman Kodak Co., etc., value their goodwill above all other assets, I believe. Yet manufacturers themselves do not know of what their goodwill consists."

There is no question that goodwill is worth money. Russell² writes:

The goodwill created by advertising should be capitalized, and should show in the books of the firm, because it represents the accumulated value of the trade-mark. If every shilling in the banking account of a firm like Bovril Limited, or the proprietors of Wolsey Underwear, were confiscated, every stone in its factories thrown down, every bottle of Bovril, or suit of underwear, in stock destroyed, the firm would still be the proprietor of an invisible asset more valuable than the material properties destroyed—its trade-mark and goodwill.

And Frank H. Sisson, Vice-president of the Guaranty Trust Company of New York, is quoted as follows:

The value of goodwill is real because it is now a definite, bankable asset in the credit departments of every large financial house in New York and most of the other large cities. Take the Coca-Cola Company for example, or Proctor & Gamble, makers of Ivory soap. The Coca-Cola Company began with a little druggist in Atlanta, and has been in the hands of one family until last year. Then the original owners sold the business to a very conservative group of bankers for \$25,000,000, in spite of the fact that the tangible assets were worth perhaps not over \$5,000,000.

¹ LIPPMANN, W., "Public Opinion," p. 125, 1922.

² RUSSELL, T., "Commercial Advertising," p. 149, 1920.

Advertising goodwill amounted to at least twenty million dollars in the Coca-Cola transaction, and was valued at this sum by a group of keen financiers. And they were perfectly justified. The earnings justified them. The goodwill value of the name of Coca-Cola was well worth the money. The way the bankers' plans have worked out has proved it.

Coca-Cola, however, is made from a formula that is known only to the manufacturers. But take the Proctor & Gamble Company, which puts out Ivory soap. Any soap maker in America could duplicate the Ivory formula, but not the sales promotion or the advertising campaigns. Here is a great business, one of the finest in America, whose value rests almost entirely on the advertising goodwill that has been created. There are many other such instances of advertising value which is as real as money in the bank.¹

But what is this thing that is worth so much money? The answer usually is that it is the trade-mark. But clearly a trade-mark all by itself is worthless. The day, for example, "Kodak" was first thought of, it was worth nothing to the Eastman Kodak Co. But today it is worth millions. There has been no change at all in the trade-mark to justify this tremendous increase in value. But there has been a change in the minds of millions of people. The physiological structure of their brains has been altered. They have been taught to think "Kodak" whenever they want to take a picture or develop a film. And they have been taught to feel pleasantly toward this company and its products. The tangible elements that are worth several millions are changes in the chemical constituency of nerve cells in the brains of many men, women, and children.

But if goodwill is a sentiment, a way of thinking and feeling that exists in people's minds, how is it possible to sell it? No one can sell another man's mind or any portion of it. The mind itself or any portion of it is not sold, but the key that controls that mind can be sold. And that key is the trade-mark. It becomes a specific stimulus, or occasion, causing a definite response to be made.

In exactly the same way that " $2 + 4$ " controls your mind so that you must think "6," so "Kodak," or "Onyx," or "Quaker Oats" control your mind. Here is a concrete example of how such a trade-mark key actually controls behavior. Manufacturer A had sold a large quantity of hosiery to a department

¹ Sisson, F. H., "Manufacturer and Advertising Agency Should Cooperate More Closely," *Printers' Ink*, Dec. 8, 1921.

store so that it could be retailed at \$1.95 a pair, although it was sold regularly for \$3. B's hosiery (a well-advertised brand) was displayed near A's, but at its regular selling price of \$2.65 a pair. An observer noticed that many women "inspected the \$1.95 stockings—running their hands down the inside and noting the various details with which every woman is so well acquainted. Then they placed the hose back on the table and bought some of the B brand at \$2.65. The amazing thing about it was that the \$1.95 hose were actually better than the \$2.65 goods . . . Why did they do this? Clearly, because they were buying the B brand by name and did not know the A brand. Actual superiority in quality and saving in price did not offset the habit of thinking well of the B brand and of purchasing it."¹

Now all goodwill in business does not have such a key to it as in the case of trade-marked goods. The goodwill that customers have toward a corner grocer is a case in point. This goodwill is frequently rated as an asset and sold along with the fixtures, lease, and goods on the shelves. But such goodwill is not so easily conveyed to another or kept, as in the case of goodwill related to a trade-mark. Cases where the grocer's clerk sets up in business and takes with him many of the grocer's customers are familiar to everyone. Part of the goodwill the grocer thought belonged to him evidently did not belong to him at all, or at least only as long as his clerk chose not to go into business. And frequently after the new proprietor has paid money for goodwill he finds that the old customers quit coming. They liked the old grocer but not the new one. But the case is quite different when the goodwill is attached to the trade-mark. It is then not attached to employees or even to the employer but to a name, and whoever owns the trade-mark has the allegiance of all the old customers. Few persons, for example, know that the Ingersolls are no longer the owners of the Ingersoll trade-mark. It might decrease their loyalty to the name a little if they did. But after all, the significant thing is the word "Ingersoll." If the watch carries that name they know it and have confidence in it or no use for it according to the nature of their sentiment for it.

¹ HARRISON, C. M., "Advertising Pushes Phoenix Sales beyond Wartime Volume," *Printers' Ink*, p. 344, Sept. 8, 1921.

Trade-marks and Goodwill are a Recent Development in Selling.—Trade-marks have been in existence for thousands of years. They undoubtedly developed from the use of a workman's tool mark to signify who made the article. But their modern use is very recent, as is shown by the figures below.¹

Years	Number of trade-marks registered per five-year period	Per cent of whole
1870-1874.....	2,149	1.4
1875-1879.....	5,640	3.8
1880-1884.....	4,053	2.7
1885-1889.....	5,517	3.7
1890-1894.....	8,398	5.6
1895-1899.....	8,200	5.5
1900-1904.....	9,997	6.7
1905-1909.....	32,311	21.5
1910-1914.....	25,346	16.9
1915-1919.....	26,661	17.6
1920-1921.....	21,936	14.6
Total.....	150,208 ¹	100

¹ Seventy-one per cent of these 150,208 trade marks were registered since 1905.

Advantages of a Trade-mark.—Without a trade-mark a manufacturer cannot reach the ultimate consumer through advertising nor can he hope to build up consumer goodwill which he can control. His output is dependent upon the self-interest of a relatively small number of distributors. They may find it to their advantage to continue to buy from him and then again they may not. The chief danger to the manufacturer lies in the fact that a change in the buying habits of a few distributors may affect most profoundly his whole business.

The goodwill arising from satisfactory use of a commodity is associated with its trade-mark, and the owner of the trade-mark gets a continued advantage. Moreover, money spent in advertising not only goes to the selling of goods today but carries over to the development of more goodwill. This cumulative effect represents a very real saving in the cost of distribution.

¹ *Official Gazette of U. S. Patent Office*, p. 674, Feb. 21, 1922.

Although trade-marks developed because of their value to the seller they are of real value to the consumer also. He avoids having to buy many a "pig in a poke," once he has a good acquaintance with trade-marks; he is enabled to identify and secure goods of the same sort that he has previously found worth while; and he knows how to avoid what he has learned is unsatisfactory. In other words, a trade-marked commodity tends to become standardized as to quality, specifications, and price, thus making it easy for the buyer to obtain what he wants with a minimum of trouble. Contrast the uniformity of quality of coffee in every can of a nationally advertised brand with that of "a pound of coffee" supplied by grocers generally. Not only are trade-marked goods standardized as to quality but they are widely distributed, whereas non-trade-marked goods or locally named commodities are difficult, often impossible to obtain, when one moves to a new locality.

Such advantages to the consumer result in a saving of time in making purchases which means also a saving in time for the retailer. With a stop-watch it was ascertained that it took 26.3 seconds to buy bottled and canned goods, when the trade name was not given; as against 9.3 seconds, when the trade name was mentioned. In the case of bread the figures were 21.0 and 10.6 seconds, with a saving of 10.4 seconds. One investigator reports that the average drug clerk in a busy store completes 32 sales per hour. Purchases could not be made at this rate if it were not that the consumer is already well informed as to what he is buying, and that consequently it is unnecessary for the clerk in most cases to do more than wrap up the article, to announce the price, and to make change. If there were no standardized trade-named drugs and no advertising of them, the time necessary for each transaction would be at least doubled with consequent loss to both consumer and seller.

One objection to the use of trade-marks that is often raised is that once a trade name is well established there is a tendency on the part of the owner either to lower the quality or to raise the price. It is a fair question whether there is any more of a tendency to do this in the case of trade-marked goods than in that of non-trade-marked goods. Filene¹ believes that mankind is

¹ FILENE, E. A., "Mass Buying and Mass Selling, Too," *The Nation's Business*, September, 1924.

entering upon an era in which distributors will combine to a much greater extent than they have in the past and so take away from the manufacturer much of the advantage he has gained through national advertising of his brands. He writes:

Trade-marked goods will succeed just as far as they are better goods at less price, and they will fail if they are simply better advertised goods. We are entering into a period of intense competition, a competition which will amount almost to a revolution in production and distribution; and goods cannot survive this test solely by means of advertising.

Summary.—Trade-marks aid in facilitating habits of buying a particular company's commodity. They are potent in proportion to the amount of goodwill associated with them. This is a matter of gradual development in the minds of every buyer. When goodwill is generally attached to a trade name then there may be said to be a sentiment for that commodity among the buying public, and a habit of buying results.

Questions

1. What is meant by atmosphere, sentiment, goodwill?
2. How is it possible to sell goodwill?
3. What are the advantages of a trade-mark to the owner, the retailer, the consumer?
4. Why do many wholesalers and retailers buy non-branded goods in preference to branded commodities?
5. Why has goodwill become such an important consideration during the last few years?
6. Select ten advertisements from current periodicals that illustrate "atmosphere." Select ten others that illustrate the deliberate attempt to develop a sentiment about the goods.

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See also references at end of chap. XXI.

PART III

PRINCIPLES OF SELLING AND ADVERTISING

Having considered in Part II the wants of man and his search for satisfaction in general, the use a salesman may make of such facts will now be discussed.

The salesman's attempt is to help the prospect find an adequate method of satisfying his wants by means of the seller's goods. Essentials to success here are that the prospect must be made conscious of a want and that the goods must be shown to be satisfying. And as the sale is designed to make a customer instead of merely a one-time buyer the salesman tries also to insure that the commodity will be pleasantly remembered even after the glow of immediate satisfaction has faded.

The first problem, then, is how to arouse or intensify the wants of a prospective buyer. This is done by making him realize how forlornly he is situated without a certain something, or how charmed he would be if he had a certain something, or what fell obstacle it is which keeps him from a certain something. Chapters XVI to XVIII expatiate on these points.

The factors involved in establishing the adequacy of the seller's proposition constitute the subject matter of Chap. XIX.

The particular problems that arise because people forget are considered in Chaps. XX and XXI.

For the benefit of students of this subject Chaps. XXII and XXIII are included, in which the theory of selling expressed in the buying formula is contrasted with other theories.

CHAPTER XVI

INTENSIFYING THE WANT—MOTIVATION

The final objective in selling is to make the prospect want the seller's goods, to establish the goods in his mind as an acquired want. (Recall how a shovel was converted into an acquired want in the mind of the writer, page 176.) When this objective is reached, when the prospect genuinely wants the seller's goods, the prospect is a buyer and need not be sold to.

But until the prospect reaches the final stage of voluntarily buying, he does not want the seller's goods sufficiently to buy them. That is obvious. The problem, then, is to put some want into the goods (if it is permitted to speak in this fashion). This want, that will be used, must already exist within the mind of the prospect. It cannot come from any other source. It must be some one of the prospect's native or acquired desires.

The problem of making a prospect want the seller's goods becomes the problem of arousing some want which can be satisfied by the goods.

The point of view here is different from that generally held. Most authorities stress playing up the goods. The wants in the prospect's mind are stressed here. The goods are viewed not as the end, but as the means to the end. The end is satisfaction in the mind of the prospect. It is to be achieved by means of the goods.

Wants Expressed as Reasons for Buying.—When the seller talks about his goods from start to finish, wants are presented as reasons for buying; that is, wants are presented in that form, if they are presented at all.

Suppose a prospect decides to buy a lawn mower in order to cut his lawn. The hardware merchant shows him two lawn mowers. Lawn mower X, he points out, is lighter and easier to push than Y; Y, on the other hand, is \$3 cheaper than X. If the prospect prefers ease of manipulating a lawn mower to \$3,

then lawn mower X is for him the better. On the other hand, if he values \$3 more than ease, then lawn mower Y is the better.

These "reasons" in behalf of lawn mowers X and Y have nothing to do with the relative efficiency of the two machines in connection with cutting grass. Both prospect and salesman assume the two lawn mowers will cut grass equally well. The sale is made on the basis of the different wants that will be satisfied by the respective machines. In passing it may be pointed out that as long as there are prospects who prefer ease to \$3 and other prospects who prefer \$3 to ease, two such lawn mowers can be sold in the same store.

When a seller is confronted by competition, the usual procedure consists in showing that his commodity will satisfy many of the prospect's wants, and as nothing is said about the competing commodity it soon appears to the prospect as less desirable because it does not satisfy so many wants. In a Johns-Manville Shingle advertisement there is a cut showing a man putting asbestos shingles over old wooden shingles. At the left and separated from the copy appears the following reasons for buying the Johns-Manville product, namely:

Lay asbestos shingles right over the old shingles.

1. Saves money.
2. Saves time.
3. Saves labor.
4. No muss or dirt.
5. Old shingles are valuable as additional insulation and protection.
6. Asbestos shingles are fireproof.
7. They make a roof of artistic beauty.
8. You need never reroof again because asbestos shingles are permanent.

All this makes a good impression, but these "reasons" do not prove that J-M asbestos shingles are better than someone else's. A good salesman for wooden shingles can present just as fine an array of reasons why a man should buy from him. The controversy is not with respect to the relative merit of shingles alone, but with respect to the whole gamut of a man's wants. Some will buy from Johns-Manville because they want fire protection, and some will buy wooden shingles because they are going to sell the house as soon as it is shingled and wooden shingles will be cheaper.

In one sense the reasons advanced above in behalf of lawn mowers and shingles help establish the adequacy of the solution. But in a truer sense these reasons arouse wants which make the prospect desire the solution. Such reasons are useful if they make the prospect *feel* the want referred to. But in many cases a person can read such items as "saves money, saves time, saves labor," and be much less influenced, than he would be if any one of them were discussed in such a way as to arouse his imagination to a full appreciation of what is involved. (Refer to page 183 for further discussion.)

Most reasons for purchasing a particular commodity persuade or motivate in some degree. But it makes a great deal of difference whether what is said is presented to emphasize the *uses* and the excellence of the commodity, or to emphasize *wants* that will be satisfied. Because "giving reasons" means to almost everyone "information about the commodity," it is well to employ the term "motivation" when the seller intends to "intensify the want," or "to arouse additional wants." The word "motivation" suggests motives, suggests putting motives into the mind of the buyer; and that is just what must be done in order to secure most sales.

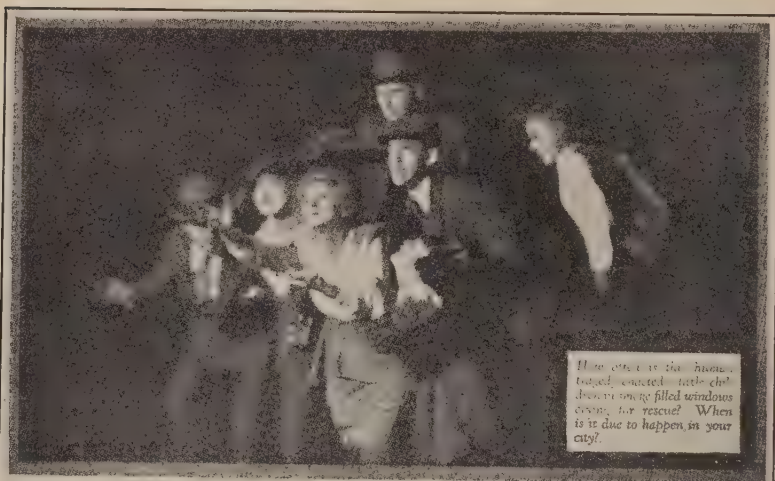
MOTIVATION

The Grinnell Company in attempting to sell the installation of automatic sprinklers in public buildings are confronted with the problem of making the public realize the need for such equipment. Such realization comes usually too late, so in order to arouse it *before* the tragedy, motivation must be employed. The advertisement (Fig. 32) illustrates the method of accomplishing this.

The picture in the advertisement arouses fear and curiosity. The copy set into the cut immediately arouses the parental instinct—concern for the children of these people, also sympathy for them.

The heading, "All that was humanly possible," and the copy emphasize that the usual excuse for such a fire is not adequate—that there is a means of avoiding such terrible catastrophes.

As picture and copy are studied, the reader thinks of his own children, of the school buildings they attend, and of their inad-



How often is the human tragedy enacted—little children being filled windows crying for rescue! When is it due to happen in your city?

All that was humanly possible

AFTER the fire in the Ninth Ward school was anybody tarred and feathered? After the heroism of teachers and firemen—after the impressive funeral of the little victims who perished—after the debris ceased to smoke and other visible reminders of the tragedy were gone—after the official investigation and the report—what reforms were recommended?

Did the report exonerate officials and attempt to clear the city of the disgrace?

Did it say, "Fire escapes and everything that was humanly possible had been done to safeguard the school against fire?"

If so, the fathers and mothers of the victims would like to cry out in protest and reproach, "Everything was NOT done that was humanly possible." The simplest, sanest, surest thing of all was not done.

If the fire had started in a business building owned by a private individual instead of a public building owned by a lot of taxpayers, it would have been put out quickly by automatic sprinklers. Mere merchandise gets the protection of the finest

fire-fighting device ever devised because the insurance expense is thereby cut from one-half to nine-tenths. But human beings in schools and hospitals must trust to their own cool-headedness under panic conditions or to the lucky chance of some heroic rescue.

When human life and not mere merchandise is at stake, nothing else should be considered but this system—the highest type of fire-fighting device ever devised—the Grinnell Automatic Sprinkler System. It is automatic! The heat of the fire works it. It is always on guard. Always ready. No human aid is required. When the fire starts the water starts!

Read—"Fire Tragedies and Their Remedy"

Write today for "Fire Tragedies and Their Remedy" and learn from the records the necessity for protection that protects. Pass this book along to your friends, and have it read aloud in your lodge, your Rotary or Kiwanis Club, your Chamber of Commerce, your school and hospital boards. Address Grinnell Company, Inc., 274 West Exchange Street, Providence, R. I.

GRINNELL COMPANY

Automatic Sprinkler
Systems

Steam & Hot Water
Heating Equipment

Humidifying and
Drying Equipment

Fittings, Hangers
and Valves

Pipe Bending,
Welding, etc.

Power and
Process Piping

When the fire starts, the water starts.

FIG. 32.—Good use of motivation.

equate protection against fire, thus intensifying the emotion aroused in connection with someone else.

The advertisement closes with very direct suggestions as to what one can do to protect his children. He can secure more information from the booklet, he can pass the booklet on to others, he can interest the club to which he belongs in the matter. He is made to realize that he, a solitary citizen, can arouse public opinion and accomplish results.

City officials furthermore are aroused to an appreciation of what they can do, and are made more susceptible to suggestions on the subject because the excuses they can give if a tragedy occurs have been undermined (see Fig. 33).

The Process of Motivation.—Motivation can be illustrated by a switch engine pushing several cars ahead of it. On the adjoining track stands a car all alone. The latter car may be connected up with the engine, however, through the use of a heavy pole wedged between the engine and the car and then it can be pushed along.

The switch engine in this case represents the parental instinct. This want normally is causing the father to do many things for his children, for example, to buy clothing and presents, to sacrifice an engagement at the club in order to take the children where they want to go, to carry life insurance for their future protection, and so on. All these activities are carried on because the father loves his children.

But he has never thought of urging the installation of automatic sprinklers in a school house, although he may have had them installed in his factory. This matter is represented by the car on the adjoining track, standing alone with no motive power to push it along.

The advertisement arouses the parental instinct and then connects it up with this heretofore unthought of activity. When connected up the undreamed of responsibility becomes a live issue.

A study of the great speeches of history which have caused action will show that their success is due to this principle of motivation. All religions are based on arousal of certain emotions, the energy of which is directed into specific channels. Christianity is frankly based on love, not on reason. In the Parable of the Good Samaritan, parental love is directed toward

caring for anyone in sickness or distress as one instinctively does for one's own child.

Further Illustrations of Motivation.—An excellent example of motivation is found in the Wallach Bros. advertisement run in *The New York Times*, Dec. 24, 1921:

WHAT DOES HE WANT?

A man never tells. For years he may have cherished a secret passion for a sweater coat, or a solid gold collar button, or a smoking jacket, or a really good umbrella, or a silk shirt, or a gorgeously extravagant cravat, or any one of a thousand luxuries he can't afford.

But year after year he denies himself these indulgences—pretends even to scoff at men who enjoy them.

Instead, he spends his money, so far as it will go, to gratify the yearnings of his family. Many a lady's new fur coat hangs beside a threadbare ulster. Dancing shoes for the children often mean new half soles on his old shoes.

Take him by-and-large, Dad is a pretty decent old scout and is about due for the finest present he ever had. But he must select it himself.

So, instead of giving him a lot of trifles for which he has no earthly use, just raise a common fund and buy him a Wallach Gift Certificate.

Then he can drop in the day after Christmas and have the time of his life spending someone else's money.

That is the only way you will ever know what Dad really wants.

The copy about Dad intensifies the already present desire to give him a Christmas present. As a result it is resolved to do more than contemplated; moreover, to buy a Wallach Gift Certificate because in that way Dad can pick out what he really desires.

The advertising of Dr. Eliot's Five-Foot Shelf of Books, which few would ordinarily buy, presents such appeals as, "Which of these two men has learned the secret of fifteen minutes a day?" with an accompanying cut of an attractive-looking young woman giving undivided interest to one man at a dinner table while a second man looks helplessly on. The motivating use of the sex instinct is obvious.

The Bagley-Barnes interview and the Judson-Prospect interview in Chaps. III and IV illustrate motivation in selling life insurance, a service which is seldom bought and is not particularly wanted. Bagley leads Barnes to think of his boy and the boy going to college and shortly gets him to admit that there is nothing else he could give his boy which would benefit him as

much as a college education. The remainder of the sale is easy, consisting merely of explanations of how Barnes can get what he wants. Contrast such selling strategy with what the average life insurance salesman has employed on yourself!

These two interviews are typical of two types of sales presentations. In the Bagley-Barnes interview wants are emphasized first and then the solution outlined. In the Judson-Prospect interview wants are stressed at the beginning and the solution at the end, but throughout the presentation both elements are before the prospect. Both types are conducive to selling in terms of the buying formula. A third type of sales presentation is that where the commodity or service is discussed from beginning to end, and wants are only brought in as reasons for buying. This third type is typical of sellers who present the matter from the seller's point of view, not the buyer's.

Another example of motivation is found in the American Laundry Machinery Company advertisement of February, 1924. The cut shows a woman seated by a table upon which is a large kerosene lamp and in her lap is a basket full of things to be mended. Her expression depicts thought coupled with dejection. The copy follows:

"I know Helen is slipping away from me," she said, "we seem almost to live in different worlds. I know she disapproves of my furniture, and that my wall paper grieves her soul. Even in the kitchen she pities her poor, old-fashioned mother who cannot tell a vitamin from a calorie.

"I'm not up to the welfare work she's so interested in and when they're discussing county politics around the dinner table I don't know enough to venture an opinion. And the last shreds of my influence vanished when I had to admit one day that I could not even name our Congressman. My influence!—she'd as soon take advice from Rajah, the cat.

"I suppose it's mostly my fault. Maybe I am getting out of date. But all day I'm busy with housework, and evenings I'm tired. I'd like to catch up—but I never seem able to find the time.

"I guess she's what you call the 'New Woman' and I'm sure I'm what she'd call an 'Old Woman'—though I'm not so old in years. I don't care for the books she reads or the plays she goes to. Even the phonograph only seems to show how far apart we are—I'm fond of 'Carry Me Back to Old Virginny' and 'Old Black Joe' and she plays them to humor me; but when she really wants to enjoy herself she puts on something with French words, written by a Russian composer and sung by an Italian tenor. I'm even afraid to refer to them for fear I'll mispronounce their names. And then if I . . . "

At this point the copy is covered up by what appears to be a slip of paper resting on the main part of the advertisement. The "slip" is entitled, "Hours for Sale—and you can have them." The copy that follows is:

How often have you seen women who lost themselves in the routine of housework until they were complete strangers to the thoughts of those about them? The world has passed them by; their families have grown up only to grow away.

They need time—time to remain the companion of the husband and the "pal" of the children. And time is exactly what the laundry offers. It does more than the mere washing of clothes—it brings new hours, new days, new leisure to which really to live.

The laundry is not only a time-saver—it saves fatigue and worry, too. And more than 2,000,000 women testify to its reliability and the high quality of its work. To every home is offered a service suited to its needs and its income; for every woman wash-day hours can be largely or entirely eliminated. And these hours saved from housekeeping can be more wisely invested in home-making.

The laundry has "Hours for Sale"—and you can have them.

At the right of this copy and still appearing to be on the "slip of paper" are set forth the six types of service rendered by a laundry.

In order to head off hostile legislation, to secure financial aid, and to obtain the support of the public, the San Joaquin Light and Power Corporation proceeded in a very systematic and far-reaching way to motivate the public in its favor. Mr. Wishon¹ writes:

For instance you are a manufacturer's agent. I show you by definite, graphic proof that under conditions of encouragement a certain load can be added on the Pacific coast in 1920; that, based upon past costs of construction, the building of plants necessary to take care of this load will require a definite number of millions of dollars, and next, you are shown, that, according to the averages of the classified investment for the past, approximately 8 per cent of this total investment will go into transformers. What will you do?

If you are a live manufacturer's agent, you know what part of the transformer business on the Pacific coast should be yours. You know just what net profits you should make from the sale of those transformers that are to be added to the Pacific coast if electrical development is encouraged. It means a definite amount of dollars and cents to you, and you are interested to that amount.

¹ WISHON, A. E., "Self-interest Will Aid Electrical Development," *Electrical World*, Dec. 13, 1919

You will use every effort to see that electrical development is encouraged. But you will not stop there. You will carry this same message of "self-interest" to the manufacturer of those transformers in the East. You will show him definitely the amount of gross sales he can expect on the Pacific coast in that particular year. He will be interested and will take up the argument to the extent that he benefits in dollars and cents. He will carry that message "to encourage Pacific coast development" to the steel mills from which he buys his steel. He will tell it to them on the basis of self-interest, by showing them the amount of steel they will sell him for the manufacture of his transformers that are to go to the Pacific coast, provided that electrical development is encouraged.

After discussing how self-interest may be aroused in other groups of men, Wishon shows how the welfare of local communities is involved and how, when that is appreciated, citizens will come to support what they otherwise might oppose.

At the present time the San Joaquin Light and Power Corporation has over 2,000 applications for power service, of which 1,200 are applications for agricultural service. A close study of the agricultural applications indicates that approximately 600 of these applications are for the development of new lands, requiring new homes, barns, buildings, fences, and all farm equipment.

In Fresno County, in 1910, there were 16,799 homes and there were 6,245 farms, or approximately two homes in town for every home in the country. It is therefore apparent that when electrical service is rendered and the 600 new farm homes are constructed 1,200 in-town homes will be constructed, or 1,800 additional homes will be built, due directly to electrical development, and this does not include commercial buildings, factories, and other resultant construction that is made necessary to handle the produce of the 600 farms and to supply the population made possible through this agricultural development.

The cost of the average in-town home in this locality, including building site, is \$6,000, and for the country home, without building site, \$5,070, or a total building construction program of \$10,242,000.

Figure 3 (not reproduced) is a segregation on a percentage basis of home building costs that go to make up this investment. It shows definitely just how the different industries and trades will benefit in definite amounts of dollars and cents in this \$10,242,000 building program that is dependent entirely upon hydroelectric development in serving a single class of power consumers. Take the lumberman for a moment. Let him figure it out in dollars and cents and see if he is interested in the electrical development of the San Joaquin Light and Power Corporation. Next, with 15.5 per cent of this total investment going to carpenter work, can the carpenter be interested in this building program that depends upon hydroelectric development?

As units of an industry, we have learned to understand that, regardless of the part we are playing in the industry, we are limited in our possibilities of

success as the industry as a whole is limited; that what is of benefit to the industry as a whole is of benefit to us. It therefore becomes the duty of every man in the entire industry to carry to every individual of the public the message of what the development of electrical industry means to that individual in dollars and cents; for when that message is put across, as it can be, the public will understand that to delay electrical development delays local and national development in all lines of business, that financing is necessary to electrical development, and that fair legislation is necessary to financing. When the public understands these simple facts the greatest problem that faces the electrical industry today will be solved.

Summary.—In all these examples of motivation some want is prominently played up at the beginning and the prospect is then led to see that the suggested commodity will satisfy the want. Motivation can, however, be employed after the commodity has been mentioned, as is done in the Judson-Prospect sale interview in Chap. IV. And motivation can be employed at the close of a sale interview in order to precipitate signing. In fact, many salesmen, who never dream of using it at the beginning of a sale, employ it very successfully at the close.

Suggestion.—Many authorities employ the term "suggestion." It has been used in such a variety of senses that it is well-nigh impossible to define it. Two different usages may, however, be mentioned.

In many cases suggestion means nothing more than the result of association. So "1492" suggests "Columbus" because the reader has associated the two ideas from earliest school days.

In a second sense the connection is not between ideas but from idea to action. Thus a car card displays a spray of roses with the question "How long since you sent her some?" and the name of a florist. The question suggests to a reader his wish to please "her" and a possible way of doing so. Here a dormant want is stimulated and directed into action.

Often the easiest and most successful way to influence an individual is through such suggestion. He does not feel coerced and resentful as he may if argued into action. He has not been forced, but has acted because of the strength of his own associations and wishes.

This second usage of suggestion can be distinguished, if it is desired, from motivation. Where suggestion is sufficient to produce action there is already present in the prospect's mind a

want and an association between it and the desired action. The mine is prepared and the fuse attached to it. The suggestion only applies the match and sets it off. Motivation is used where matters are not so simple, where there is no present want directly leading to the desired action and where a related want must be connected up.

Suggestion is good, but it is dependent on conditions being present in the prospect which are far from invariable. Only the really ideal husband who read the car card described above went straight off and ordered flowers for his wife. Most men are tougher stuff and need more stirring up. But they can be reached by careful motivation.

The following sale appeals may be called typical of suggestion, if one wishes to differentiate between suggestion and motivation, or they may be thought of as typical of a simpler form of motivation than those given in the preceding section.

There's a breakdown in the shop—permanent or emergency repairs must be made at once.

A rush call for holes—time and money will be saved by drilling right on the spot.

A "Van Dorn" Portable Electric Drill will do the work and make it unnecessary to take the job to a stationary drill.

No plant is too small to find a "Van Dorn" Electric Drill a profitable investment for the Repair and Maintenance Department.

For over twenty years, in thousands of plants, "Van Dorn" Electric Tools have been more than paying their way. Will you cash in on this experience? A "Van Dorn" man will show you how—send for him.

Here is suggestion only. The want to drill holes in an emergency and the solution, a Van Dorn drill, are emphasized. But there is no proof that the drill is a good one.

Consider four paragraphs of copy from a Walworth Stillson wrench advertisement:

Probably you will never need to use the full power of a Walworth Stillson wrench. In most household uses the regular 10-inch size will turn the trick with surprisingly little force. The clean-forged jaws of a Walworth Stillson hold tight and hard on metal or wood of any shape.

And on little things—a rod, a bit of wire, or the head of a nail—a Walworth Stillson gives you the same persuasive grip and leverage for an easy twist or husky pull.

For anything round—We have been keeping count of all the uses people have found for the Walworth Stillson wrench for general household utility. These listed here are quoted from letters actually received.

To turn your screw driver (as illustrated) when screws are stubborn. To take a broken electric light stub out of its socket. To unscrew the round cap on an electric flashlight. To open bottles sealed with crown caps. For uncrating anything. And, of course, to hold or turn any kind of pipe.

Unquestionably this copy is primarily an example of suggestion. One want after another is mentioned and the solution *via* Walworth wrench is outlined. Once the reader feels these wants he has a reason for buying. In the first paragraph there is some attempt to demonstrate that the wrench is adequate but nothing is given to prove that the Walworth is the best kind of Stillson wrench.

Here are three paragraphs of copy from an advertisement in behalf of Seattle and the Pacific Northwest.

These are cities in which to work and be sure of rich rewards. But they are also better and finer places in which to live. Schools, colleges, churches, homes, hospitals, libraries, theaters—these and all things else their builders have made, not “just as good,” but *better* than they knew “back east.” Nothing old, nothing out of date. Everything the latest, the most modern, the best.

And nature has done the rest! For here indeed is beauty that the world cannot surpass—grandeur of mountains, streams, lakes, wild flowers, and the blue charm of the Pacific. And here is a glorious climate—so mild in some sections that roses bloom the year around. A climate that has made the Pacific Northwest the healthiest group of states in the country.

These are cities of opportunity. Opportunity to grow and prosper with a wonderful, swiftly developing country. Opportunity to live in a wonderland of natural beauty, to enjoy health and longer life, to know a greater joy of living. These are the cities of opportunity for *you!*

This is the kind of “reasoning” often used to influence a person to act. It is an appeal to man’s wants, to his emotions. Instead of contrasting the relative advantage, for example, of Seattle and any other place to live, it ignores every alternative and stresses all the desires that rouse a person to move to a new city.

There is a place for reasons in selling. If the prospect does not understand how the commodity will serve him it must be made clear through demonstration or explanation. If he does not believe the commodity is as desirable as some competitor’s, proof must be supplied him (see Chap. XIX). But in the majority of cases these are less important factors than those of making him feel a want and having the commodity called to his attention as a solution to the want.

The Distinction between "Reason-why" and "Human-interest" Copy is of Little Value.—A good deal of attention is given by writers on advertising to the relative merits of "reason-why" and "human-interest" copy. The former, it is claimed, makes its appeal to the reason. "It lays its chief stress upon creating confidence, or convincing; and such desire as it arouses is largely intellectual."¹ The latter, on the other hand, "makes its chief appeal to the senses or emotions of the reader, with the object of arousing desire for the article advertised. Response to it is usually instinctive rather than reasoned, and consequently depends largely upon suggestion—very little upon deliberation."²

Such distinctions seem plausible on the surface. But in actual practice it is often impossible to decide whether a particular piece of copy is reason-why or human-interest. Authorities differ so greatly that what is called by one reason-why is often called by another human-interest, and *vice versa*. The writer has come to believe that no real distinction can be set up, and what is more significant there is no value in doing so. The two terms represent an outworn psychology; intellect and emotion cannot be separated in actual life, even if they can be so separated in abstract discussion. A human being is at all times a feeling, thinking organism.

Consider one example, labeled, "strong reason-why copy."

Its mightily serious to fight infection. A pin prick may lead to blood poison. The scratch of a rusty nail may bring into your system the germs of deadly lockjaw. A distinguished physician once said, "What medical men most desire in the remedies they use is effectiveness and reliability; in a word, confidence." The name Dioxogen spells confidence in Peroxide of Hydrogen; the uncertainty (a marked characteristic of ordinary Peroxide) has been eliminated.³

Why is this not human-interest copy? It certainly appeals to fear of death. And where is the reason-why in it? There is no attempt at proof, or even mere statement, that Dioxogen kills germs.

The terms "reason-why" and "human-interest" will be done away with here, for all copy should be both convincing and inter-

¹ TIPPER, H., HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., HOTCHKISS, G. B., and PARSONS, F. A., "Advertising," p. 186, 1915.

² TIPPER, H., *op. cit.*, p. 204.

³ TIPPER, H., *op. cit.*, p. 193.

esting and never be one without also being the other. In the place of such terms "copy designed to make the prospect want" and "copy designed to show that the goods adequately satisfy the want" will be substituted. Or rather let it merely be recognized that there are these two things to be done in selling—that often both will be done simultaneously, and that at other times they will be done more or less one after the other.

All this is a digression. The main topic of motivation will now be resumed.

Good Motivation Will Always Sell Competitor's Goods to Some Extent.—The switch-engine analogy emphasizes the fact that a commodity may stand alone—unwanted and often unknown, and that on an adjoining track there may be an aroused want the energy of which is more than sufficient to carry along many a heavy load. All that is necessary to move the commodity is a good connecting link.

Another phase of motivation must be emphasized—a phase not illustrated by the switch-engine analogy but by the analogy of a bomb and funnel. The bomb represents aroused want; the funnel the directing of this want to the desired purpose of the seller, or, in other words, the establishment in the mind of the prospect of the belief that the seller's goods will adequately satisfy his want.

The Grinnell Company advertisement (Fig. 32) may be said to explode a bomb within the reader. Fear, curiosity, and parental love are aroused. And this aroused energy is "funneled" to the specific action of installing automatic sprinklers. When the advertisement is finished the reader feels concern for his children and the most adequate method of acting seems to be that of installing automatic sprinklers in the school.

The analogy of a bomb and funnel is useful in that it emphasizes the impossibility of arousing a person's wants in such a way that the whole force of his desire can be directed to the seller's purpose. The bursting bomb within the funnel will throw off energy upwards into the air; it will also throw off some energy downwards through the funnel. The bigger the funnel the more energy that will be directed downwards.

Applying this analogy to the Grinnell advertisement it can be stated that some parents will send their children to a different

school, some will insist upon a fire drill, or the building of fire escapes, or the building of another school, or the installation of sprinklers from a competing company. But some will be induced to stir up public opinion for the installation of Grinnell automatic sprinklers. The maximum returns are obtained in proportion to the strength of the desire that is aroused and the extent to which the suggested solution is made to seem adequate.

WHILE you are thinking to yourself, "I guess this coat will do another year!"—what do you suppose your friends are thinking?

Roos Bros
INC.
SIX-STORE BUYING POWER



**Buy it now at our Annual Overcoat Sale*

FIG. 34.—All "bomb," very little "funnel."

Sommer & Kaufmann
emphasize the unusual features and importance of their present

Annual Winter Sale



Quality. It seems hardly necessary to say much about this feature. As you already know, the shoes and hosiery are standard, 100% S. & K. merchandise—simply reduced in price for seasonal clearance.

Quantity. More shoes and more sizes than we believe any other store on the Pacific Coast can offer. Your size is surely here—and at the price you are prepared to pay.

Styles. A greater number of stylish models than we ever before offered. And a greater number of complete lines.

Materials. All the wanted materials—Tan Calf, Patent Leather, Black and Brown Suede, Black Satin, Brocades, etc.

Prices. Substantial reductions in every department, exceptional savings on hosiery and shoes for women, men and children.

"It's a Real Thrift Celebration at our low, big shoe sales"
838 Market St. 11 119 Grant Ave.

"The Reductions are in the Prices —NOT in the Quality"

FIG. 35.—All "funnel," very little "bomb."

Figure 34 illustrates an advertisement that is all "bomb" and practically no "funnel." It stimulates desire. The writer thought of his old hat, not overcoat or suit. Other readers undoubtedly thought of their worn-out auto, of painting their home, and the like. Roos Bros. will obtain more business than any other firm but a better advertisement would have brought them still more. The opposite extreme is illustrated in Fig. 35,

which is all "funnel" and very little "bomb." If the reader realizes the need for shoes he quite likely will consider Sommer and Kaufmann's appeal to buy there. But the advertisement will create very little desire. The ideal advertisement is a combination of the two.

Many an advertising campaign is made practically useless because the advertiser is unwilling that his competitors should profit from his advertising. Instead of running advertisements that will stir up people and cause them to do many things including buying from him, he contents himself with weak motivation which he hopes to control completely, or he refuses to advertise when he realizes how weak are the advertisements especially designed not to help competitors at all. An article signed by the editor of *Printers' Ink* has this to say on the subject:

Most manufacturers are satisfied to know that advertising helps their business and that it is a profitable investment for them. Discontinuing a paying investment simply because someone else may get a little profit out of it also would be like cutting off the nose to spite the face. Of course, most broad-minded advertisers would like to see their competitors advertise. They realize that the more advertising teamwork there is in the industry, the better it will be for everybody concerned. In many lines there is so much educational promotion to be done that the more hands joined in the work the quicker the job will be done. Markets expand more rapidly when several companies are developing them. That is why we find advertisers in several fields doing all they possibly can, both through persuasion and by example, to get their competitors to join them in developing the industry. We know of one line in particular where until recently it was necessary for the advertisers in it to devote 75 per cent of their advertising to broad consumer education, which helped all companies having a similar product to sell. Only 25 per cent of the efforts of these advertisers was left for the promotion of their own particular brands. But they were glad to back this unselfish program. The educational work had to be done, or the demand for the industry's product would have suffered grievously. Recently a better coöperative spirit took possession of the business and there are now dozens of advertisers in it instead of the five or six that stood the educational burden for years.

That is what usually happens. One or two indomitable advertisers do the pioneering work, and then after the trails are blazed the less daring souls join in. By that time, though, the pioneers are so far in the lead that their permanent leadership in the industry is assured.¹

When Should Motivation Be Emphasized in Selling?—A certain amount of motivation is useful in all selling. It is needed

¹ "When Manufacturers 'Horn in' on the Efforts of Their Advertising Competitor," *Printers' Ink*, Oct. 13, 1921.

least of all when the prospect is a buyer, for then the desire for the commodity is well established or he would not take the trouble to seek the goods. But whenever a seller is attempting to sell a prospect, it is wise to assume that the prospect's wants are not so fully realized as they can be made to be if they are aroused during the sales presentation.

Motivation is Essential When the Prospect is Indifferent to, or Ignorant of, the Want to Be Satisfied.—Readers of advertisements are presumably indifferent to, or ignorant of, the possibility of their children being burned to death in the local schoolhouse. Citizens of California are ignorant of the advantages accruing to them from increased power plant service, etc. Until these wants are aroused there can be no sale.

Motivation is Essential When the Prospect Views the Proposition as a Need but Not a Want.—The seller can convince the buyer his goods are the best, but he sells when the buyer wants them (review Chap. XIV in this connection).

Motivation is Essential in Closing Many Sales.—If a seller fails to secure an order after having given a complete demonstration of how his product will satisfy the prospective buyer, the proper procedure is not to give further demonstration, or longer explanation, or more detailed proof. The thing to do is to intensify the want, or to arouse a number of additional wants, all of which can be satisfied by the commodity for sale.

Motivation is Essential When the Commodity Is to Be Transferred from the "Staple" Class into That of a "Specialty."—The only talking point about sugar for years was price. Sugar was sugar, there were no kinds. Quality was standardized as far as the public was concerned. Then Domino sugar was put on the market. And every advertisement carried the idea that the really fashionable, up-to-the-latest-minute style of serving sugar was the using of Domino lumps. A new want was associated with sugar. It not only had to be sugar now, but it had to be *the stylish* sugar. Domino sugar ceased to be a staple and became a specialty.

A specialty can be defined as a commodity which is bought to satisfy a particular combination of wants which cannot be satisfied by any other commodity. The science of establishing a commodity as a specialty is accordingly the adding of a new want

to the sum total of wants which have previously caused the purchase of the commodity so that the special commodity is kept distinct.

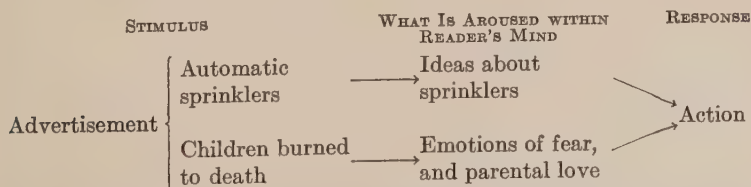
In the marketing of laundry soap it is simply a question of getting people to substitute your laundry soap for the brand they have been using. Money does not need to be spent upon educating people to wash themselves or their clothes. The demand is already created. In the marketing of a specialty such as Shredded Wheat, on the other hand, people must be educated with respect to the commodity. But once a prospect has been made into a customer he tends to continue buying because no competing article can be really substituted.

As time goes on the basic patents expire and competitors appear in the market with almost identical goods. When this happens the specialty has ceased to be a specialty and is just a commodity in the minds of the public. The solution is apparently to add from time to time a new feature that satisfies a new want.

The Kodak is an example of the continuous addition of features having specialty value. Eastman specialized in meeting the amateur's needs. First he added compactness—or took away bulk, if your mind is running negatively today. Later additions included the Autographic Back, the Range Finder, and a device to determine correct exposure. And the wise manufacturer will take this tip from the Eastman business: Never be content with a specialty feature added now and then—keep it up.¹

Motivation Should Lead to the Development of a Sentiment.—

The Grinnell Company advertisement (Fig. 32) arouses, as has been seen, the emotions of fear, curiosity, and parental love. And because these emotions are aroused the reader feels a want to do something and tends to endorse the use of automatic sprinklers because that action is suggested. The appeal may be shown diagrammatically as follows:

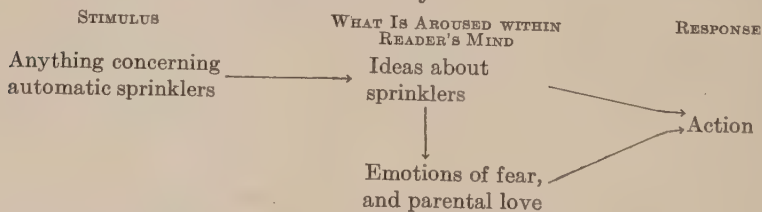


¹ GILES, R., "Wanted: More Specialties," *Printers' Ink*, July 27, 1922.

The emotion tends to cause *some* action, the idea of sprinklers tends to make the action *specific*.

But the next day in the case of the average man these emotions will have died down and the thought of sprinklers will not tend to cause action because of the lack of any drive. So far an illustration of the weakness of motivation has been given, namely, if the proposed action does not take place at once it is not likely to occur later on.

But if the reader sees advertisement after advertisement along the same line, possibly reads the booklet mailed out by the Grinnell people, hears of a fire put out with sprinklers, etc., after a time the *idea of sprinklers tends to arouse emotions of itself*. The development diagrammatically is:



When the association between "ideas about sprinklers" and "emotions of fear and parental love" has been formed then a sentiment¹ has been established, and whenever sprinklers are thought of the associated emotions will be more or less aroused.

To repeat, a person may be led to act immediately through motivation. But action through motivation after a lapse of time requires the intermediary step of sentiment.

The ideal of all advertising must be the establishment of a sentiment—a sentiment built around the idea of the use of the commodity—so that whenever the commodity is thought of pleasant emotion will be experienced and the emotional drive will cause favorable action.

Questions

1. What are the two essentials in motivation?
2. How does motivation differ from giving reasons?
3. In what two senses is the term "suggestion" used? How can suggestion be distinguished from motivation?
4. Why does the use of motivation always result in some benefit to competitors?

¹ See chap. XV for detailed discussion of this term.

5. What is meant by the statement that "motivation should lead to the development of a sentiment?"

6. To what extent are (a) motivation and (b) reasons used in current advertising?

7. How is a commodity transferred from the "staple" into the "speciality" class? What advantages result from such a change?

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CHAPTER XVII

TECHNIQUE OF MOTIVATION

The theory of motivation and its practice have been considered in the preceding chapter. Certain additional phases of the subject merit notice.

General Rules for Using Suggestion or Motivation.—Without question suggestion and motivation are intimately related to the instincts of submission and self-assertion. The more submissive A is to B, who is employing suggestion or motivation, the more effective is the result. This is so because A's want to be submissive to B, having been aroused, A naturally wants to do what B desires in order to secure approval from B.

Because of this and certain other factors the following general rules are important to bear in mind when attempting to influence another through the use of suggestion and motivation.

1. Exclude all comparison or criticism. These suggest there are at least two lines of action, and lead to hesitation. The success of motivation lies in causing only one line of action to come to mind.
2. Present the motivation in a spirit of frankness, openness, and confidence. This is the attitude of the leader. Unless it is apparent, the person who is being influenced, does not tend to accept the submissive attitude. Also, unless a spirit of frankness is shown, the other individual tends to become suspicious and guard his actions.
3. Outline clearly some action to be taken immediately. The slogan, "Eventually, why not now!" is weak in comparison with, "Don't envy a good complexion, buy Pompeian and have one," for the latter clearly states what to do.
4. Expect the action to follow. A leader expects a follower to come along. He does not beg or entreat. He strides ahead and the crowd follows.
5. Give the impression that many are following the course of action proposed. This arouses the gregarious instinct—the tendency to join the crowd, to go along with the majority, not to stand out alone. In many lines of business it is extremely difficult to get a new venture started, but once it is started everyone wants to join. Book canvassers generally sell a few copies at greatly reduced prices to the clergymen and doctors of the

town in order to get their signatures. Once they are gained, it is very much easier to gain others and when quite a number have been secured the remainder of the population is still easier to influence.

6. In advertising, arrange matters so that the suggestion comes from one the reader naturally looks up to or considers an authority.

Some individuals react negatively to suggestions. Apparently their want to be let alone, not to be interfered with, is very strong. But they are relatively few and their failure to respond to suggestion need not concern us here.

Importance of Sense-appeals.—A life insurance agent wrote as follows:

Will you kindly advise me if the following is a scientific approach? It is intended to appeal to the Eating, Parental, Sex, Acquisitive, and Fighting instincts, briefly and clearly.

Mr. Prospect. Your greatest need, aside from making a living, is to build up an estate, or fund, that will make a living for you when your earning power ends, isn't it?

It requires a good fighter to do this. May I explain a plan which will save you money, time, and worry?

This agent's theory was excellent. He planned to secure interest by appealing to the prospect's instinctive wants. But no such opening remarks would actually accomplish what he desired. For example, a man's eating instinct may be aroused by talking about a juicy beefsteak, describing how it looks, how it smells, how it is covered with mushroom gravy. The test as to whether his eating instinct has been aroused or not is whether or not there has been an increased flow of saliva in his mouth. But when words like, "making a living" are used the mouth does not water and there is no more tendency to eat after hearing the words than before.

An analysis of the copy that arouses the emotions, that makes the average man feel strongly some want, will show that it contains a large proportion of simple, well-known words, and especially of such simple words as also make a sense impression, *i.e.*, cause the reader in his imagination to see, or hear, or smell, or taste, or feel.

Simple words are necessary because they are the only ones most people fully understand. It can be seen that this must be so when it is realized that the average white man born in the United States never finished the seventh grade and that very

many citizens have never finished the fifth grade. What kind of impression do such men get when they read, or try to read, automobile copy like this?

A rare degree of reliable, saving service; performance of the first order; and a wonderful ease of riding and driving—these are already firmly established as the outstanding properties of the New Series of the good Maxwell.

Not only are simple words essential, except possibly when appealing to an audience of professional or technical men, but *concrete cases* are necessary as contrasted with abstract statements. The average man is concrete-minded. He thinks in terms of one experience or another. He is little interested in general principles underlying many experiences.

Arthur Brisbane is well known as one who interests and influences the masses. It is reported that he reads his editorials to his servant girl and prints only what she understands. This is one way of testing whether a sales presentation is clear and interesting to the vast majority of buyers.

Droke¹ writes:

Here is an excerpt from a sales letter that came to my desk a few months ago—a letter designed to sell a correspondence course:

"The men who are DOING THINGS in the United States today, the men who are INFLUENTIAL and POWERFUL, or the men who are DESTINED TO BECOME SO, find LIFE TOO SHORT to learn only by THEIR OWN PERSONAL EXPERIENCE. They are WISE enough and FAR-SIGHTED enough to know that success comes only to those who STUDY and ADAPT to THEIR OWN ENTERPRISES the SUCCESSFUL METHODS of OTHERS. FOR SUCH MEN AS THESE has THIS MASTERFUL COURSE been prepared."

—and so on and so forth for paragraph after paragraph.

You can *feel* the tenseness of the sentences. You can all but *hear* the writer gasping for breath between the continual succession of ups and downs. He is trying so hard to make an impression, and sell us something, that we cannot help but be aware of it. And so we buckle the armor of resistance a bit closer about us and prepare to give battle. It is only natural that we should.

What is needed is not so much emphasis but clear-cut word pictures of what the reader wants and how he can get it. Possibly the ideal should be a series of word-pictures one after the other, a sort of moving-picture effect.

¹ DROKE, M., "Are Your Sales Letters Written in a 'High-pitched Voice'?" *Printers' Ink*, Mar. 2, 1922.

Proper Use of the Unpleasant.—As a general rule, avoid the use of anything that is unpleasant. The usual reaction to pain, fear, disgust, and dread of disapproval is to get away, to cringe, to spit out, to run, to feel uncomfortable. All such responses are just the opposite of what is desired in selling.

These unpleasant emotions have their place. Fear is the great inhibitor of action. It checks, stops, sometimes actually paralyzes. Obedience is developed to some extent because of fear. And caution and prudence appear because one has suffered

FOR MANY HAPPY RETURNS

WEED TIRE CHAINS
and Careful Driving, Insure "Many Happy Returns"

On stormy days throughout the years, careful driving and Weed Tire Chains safeguard his car from the ever treacherous

Dear Pat - Here are my best wishes for a happy birthday and for a lot of Weed Chains to insure Many Happy Returns. Love, Mom

FIG. 36.—Emphasizing positive, not negative, aspect of the want.

and is afraid of doing so again. Enforcement of pure food laws and sanitary regulations are sometimes carried out through arousal of fear and disgust. So a restaurant proprietor may clean up when he thinks his patrons may hear how dirty his kitchen is. But he will only do what he thinks is necessary and will tend to relapse as soon as the scare wears off.

Prospects can be frightened into buying, they may be made to dread certain consequences sufficiently to buy a commodity that will save them. Life insurance has often been sold in this way. But the consensus of opinion of many experts is that very few policies of \$5,000 or more are sold through "backing the hearse up to the door." And such policies are not kept up as long as

are those that are sold in terms of more optimistic motives. The Weed Chain has frequently been advertised in terms of fear of death and injury. It is difficult to evaluate such a campaign and to decide whether more could have been sold through appeal to other motives as in Figs. 6 and 36. But the writer believes all will agree that they never heard anyone speak delightedly and enthusiastically of their tire chains although people talk in this way about other auto accessories. A man may have been forced to use tire chains, but he does not like them and does not put them on except when he has to. Such an antagonistic attitude is naturally connected with what he is forced to do through fear, and otherwise would not do. He feels toward tire chains as he does toward castor oil.

The chief reason it is dangerous to employ the unpleasant is because emotion is apt to become associated with any or all elements in an advertisement, due to the law of fusion. Fear may become associated with "not using chains" and it may become associated with "Weed Chains." Sometime ago the back cover of *The Saturday Evening Post* was decorated with a beautiful apple cut in two showing worms crawling around inside. The advertiser used it to illustrate how beautiful teeth could be rotten inside. It is doubtful if the advertisement had any other effect than to cut down the sale of apples. Another advertiser of dental powder displayed, years ago, a negro minstrel and his endorsement of the powder. To this day tooth powder recalls that dirty-looking negro to the writer's mind and he cannot imagine himself using it.

When Anything Unpleasant Must Be Stressed It Is Best to Present It in Connection with Parental Love.—A characteristic of parental love is that when danger or apprehension of harm is experienced it is faced, not run from, in order to protect the offspring. All female animals will fight desperately for their young. Human fathers and mothers naturally do the same. And the reaction can be extended into sympathy for anything weak. Focus unpleasantness, then, upon a defenseless object and arouse the reader to protect him. Such an appeal is used in charitable organizations, relief work, and the like. The effect is closely related to what is called righteous indignation. So the harmful element is attacked because of sympathy for the



Pyrene
FIRE
EXTINGUISHERS

I was oppressed by vague forebodings that day as we returned home. More and more some strange inner urge told me we must hurry.

As we rounded the last corner, I caught my breath sharply.

The window-panes of our kitchen were dyed scarlet. Smoke issued from the seams.

I screamed. The children and their nurse were somewhere in the burning house.

Dick hurried home his brakes, grabbed the Pyrene which we always carry, and dashed to the house. I was right at his heels.

I saw him smash a kitchen window—then thick smoke enveloped him.

A whole corner of the kitchen was aflame—but Dick kept pumping the Pyrene until the last sign of the fire was wiped out. It was miraculous.

Dot and Meme were up in the nursery, playing house, wholly innocent of their peril. In a moment I had them safe in my arms.

Dick showed me how to use the Pyrene and we hung it in the kitchen. He bought another one for his car because it saves 15% on the insurance each year.

A Pyrene costs only \$7.50, complete with bracket. Sold by hardware and auto supply stores.

Approved for homes by Good Housekeeping Institute. Inspected, approved, and labeled by the Underwriters' Laboratories, Inc.

Write for the home fire protection booklet, "Fire Foes"

Pyrene Manufacturing Company, 70 Vanderbilt Ave., New York
Makers of Complete Fire Protection Equipment

FIG. 37.—Good use of fear in connection with parental love.

harméd. The Pyrene advertisement in Fig. 37 is an excellent illustration (see also Figs. 32 and 33).

In a collection letter that brought results in all but 12 out of 260 cases this principle has been very clearly used. The writer makes the reader indignant at himself and sympathetically interested in helping the writer. The letter reads as follows:

FRANKLY SPEAKING, what would *you* do?

If you and your organization were trying to make the best artificial pearls you knew how to make?

If you and your organization were trying to give your customers the best possible prices based on a minimum mark-up, only sufficient to justify paying decent livable salaries?

If you and your organization were trying to serve your customers' wants, keeping *their* interests ever uppermost?

If you had paid cash for the raw materials used in making your pearls, months and months ago, LAST YEAR?

If you had paid cash for gold clasps, gift cases, salaries of factory and office men and women, railroad fares, hotel expenses, etc., LAST YEAR?

And then, on April 4, you looked at your last year's ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE and found so many names you *thought* were your FRIENDS, that it was necessary to multigraph this letter—

WHO (including YOU) *still owe* for 1921 merchandise.

TELL ME, please, what *would* you do?

H. D. HENSHEL.

Self-addressed stamped envelope enclosed for *check*.

AMOUNT OVERDUE on 1921 account.

Registered mail.¹

The Unpleasant Can Be Used When It Accurately Depicts the Situation in Which the Prospect Finds Himself and a Way of Escape Is Shown.—Patent medicines are very frequently advertised by describing symptoms the reader identifies as those he has. Those who do not have the symptoms feel repugnance, just as would be expected. But it matters relatively little in this case because they would not buy anyway. An old car card of Omega Oil (Fig. 38) is a good illustration. It would have been better if the artist had depicted dawning relief on the woman's face coupled with, "Oh! How good that feels!" An advertisement of Preventol displaying roaches crawling over a dish of sandwiches and the heading "Roaches," entered so into the experience of women in one city that it only aroused their deter-

¹ Letter sent out by the Henshel Company, see *Printers' Ink*, p. 56, May, 4, 1922.

mination to get rid of the insects and so the solution was viewed with pleasure.

This use of the unpleasant is, of course, nothing more or less than arousal of the negative aspect of the want.

Wherever Possible the Unpleasant Should Be Presented by Playing Up the Ideal and Letting the Reader Himself Make the Contrast between the Ideal and His Own Situation.—Kitchen cabinets, linoleum, ice-boxes, and the like are depicted in beautiful kitchens with all modern improvements, although relatively few ideal kitchens exist. Many advertisers have tried to depict their product in average kitchens, spending considerable money

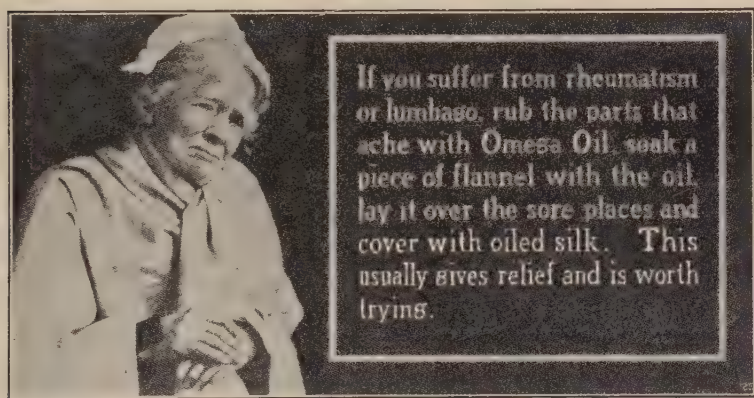


FIG. 38.—Good use of the unpleasant—depicting an unpleasant situation some readers are in and outlining a way of escape.

to get actual photographs. Their testimony is that the realistic does not sell like the ideal. When the ideal kitchen is shown the woman sees what she wants and the difference between it and what she has is considerable. She feels dissatisfaction but the unpleasantness is focused upon her own kitchen outfit and can hardly be associated with the advertised product. In Fig. 6 both the ideal and the unpleasant are portrayed.

The same principle applies to personal selling. Stories of other men's successes are nearly always more effective than describing to a man the poor points in his present equipment. He enjoys the former, it starts him striving for something better; he does not like the latter procedure, it makes him feel his failures and he does not like the salesman who tells him of it.

Obliviscence of the Disagreeable.—The mosquitoes, the poorly cooked food, the ducking in the creek, the night the blankets got soaked, were all unpleasant incidents on a fishing trip. But they afford many a good story later on. There is evidence that unpleasantness fades out in time, even changes to pleasantness. Consequently, a product established through fear may come in time to be bought for other motives, may even come to be liked. Let us hope so for the sake of some advertisers. To base a campaign on this principle, however, is to take a big chance.

Proper Use of Humor.—In one advertising agency only the president can authorize the use of a humorous appeal. This rule is in force because it is realized that it is extremely difficult to handle humor successfully, and when not used successfully it is very likely to do positive harm.

The chief cause for this is that the ridiculous can attach itself to any element that is present. The prospect consequently can very easily come to laugh at the commodity, the salesman, or at some selling argument as well as at the comical element itself.

There is undoubtedly much greater opportunity to use humor in selling than in advertising. A prospect can often be amused for a few minutes by one or more well-told jokes and then very successfully led to a consideration of the proposition. When his attention has been lost a good story is very useful in bringing him back. Here the comic drops out of mind very soon and so does not distract the prospect from what is said later on. But in advertising, the eye flits about the page and the humorous item is constantly before the reader even when he is considering the more serious part of the copy.

Possibly the most valuable use of humor is in connection with appeals to undermine a competitor. Those interested in the use of starched collars attempted "to belittle wearers of soft collars by advertising which said that almost all successful men wear stiff collars. Conversely, it might be assumed that most of the soft-collar wearers were unsuccessful." Bostick¹ goes on to discuss this subject in these words:

This sort of advertising and sales effort was all right for the stiff-collar maker, but how about the Phillips-Jones Corporation, maker of the Van Heusen semi-soft, unstarched brand of neck-piece? What could this

¹ BOSTICK, R., "Van Heusen Makes the Retort Courteous," *Printers' Ink*, June 15, 1922.

manufacturer say in rebuttal and defense? If all its customers were to be dubbed unsuccessful because they didn't wear another type of collar, should it preserve a dignified and frigid silence, enter a detailed denial with examples of successful men who wore unstarched collars, or how else meet the competition offered in the advertising?

Van Heusen decided to use humor in its copy—an ancient weapon, but one often found effective. Full-page periodical copy crammed full of happy humor is being used to offset the negative idea of “no style,” and evolution is its keynote. The thing talked about is “Ye Hall of Discomforts.” Its illustration shows a large hall containing glass cases in which repose seven great exhibits before which men are gathered, laughing and dancing with glee, or showing signs of horror and dismay. One is being carried off in a fainting condition from before Exhibit I, which is an effigy of a man in a large starched ruff. The descriptive paragraph reads thus:

“(1) *Starched Ruff*.

“Because its starched points wrought grievous injuries to both wearer and spectators and thereby caused unseemly brawls and bloody encounters at her Court, this picturesque neckwear was forbidden by the Good Queen Bess.

“(2) *Hard-boiled Shirt*.

“Men have attacked and conquered this fearsome monster alone and unaided, but it was customary to call in the neighbors to help. The Society for the Suppression of Profanity abolished it when the soft shirt appeared.

. . .

“(7) *An Uncomfortable Collar*.

“An ordinary collar, stiff or soft, which does not afford comfort with dressiness may now be replaced by A Collar With Character—not merely a more comfortable collar—but a new collar with style and comfort both *woven* and *tailored* into it.”

The remainder of the copy points out that the present generation wears a soft shirt with a soft bosom and soft cuffs, a soft hat with soft rolling lapels because they are more comfortable and better looking than those they have displaced—and describes the Van Heusen collar and the Van Craft shirt, a soft white shirt with the Van Heusen collar attached.

The serious side of the advertisement occupies about ten per cent of the space—the ninety per cent of humor appearing, apparently, that much more important to the advertiser. Thus another example of good-natured humor has made its appearance in advertising to offset a serious opposing idea.

The theory here is correct. When a competitor succeeds in associating pleasant feeling with his commodity, it is difficult to destroy that sentiment through the use of intellectual appeals. The proper procedure is to destroy the sentiment by associating the competitor's goods with an unpleasant feeling and at the same time to build up a pleasant sentiment around one's own goods. About the only way this can be done is to cause the prospect to

laugh at the competitor's goods. Fear, disgust, and the other unpleasant emotions can hardly be employed since their use would be deemed unethical today.

The aim in many advertising campaigns of toilet soap is to establish a pleasant sentiment, as, for example, in the case of Palm-olive soap. Recent advertising of Ivory soap is clearly aimed to undermine such sentiments through the use of ridicule. The main part of these advertisements is devoted to positive statements about Ivory soap, but on the side of the page appear two or three small cuts of a humorous sort and copy in small type explaining them. The main copy in one such advertisement follows:

Yes—Soap *can* help you to have a good complexion!

Can soap help toward the achievement of that desire of all women—a beautiful complexion?

Yes.

By cleansing gently and safely, for cleanliness is a prerequisite of skin beauty.

For many years we have made more soap than any other soap manufacturer in the country. We believe we are well acquainted with all the ingredients which go to make soap. We have never yet found any material—medicine, coloring matter, perfume, essence or distillations—which would add a single iota of beautifying power to a toilet soap as pure and gentle as Ivory for the complexion.

If any soap can legitimately be called a "beauty soap," then Ivory is a beauty soap of the very finest type.

But, much as you may like and respect Ivory soap, you would scarcely expect it to do more than cleanse thoroughly, gently, and safely, and intelligent women are fast learning that thorough, safe cleansing is after all the only safe and sure road to wholesome skin beauty.

And the humorous copy in small type under one of the three cuts reads:

"Will you answer me this, Miss Tippet," says Julia, paragon of maids "What does Mr. Jollyco mean when he talks about comic 'opera soap?'"

"Ha, ha!" laughs Nurse Tippet, "look here!" And she holds up a cake of Sally Jollyco's "magic" beauty soap. "That's what he means, Miss Julia. I don't see how she stands such soap when there's Ivory in the house. I'd rather not wash, I would."

"Now, Miss Tippet," say we, "be charitable. Sally is *very* young, but she's not permanently incorrigible."

Appeal to the Psychical Not the Physical Side of the Sex Instinct.—When should a pretty girl be used in an advertisement? The pros and cons of this question have been discussed

for years. The answer is: A pretty girl is an asset in an advertisement when she is so depicted that she makes a man think of his sweetheart, or wife, or mother, or sister, and particularly of doing something for them. Herein lies the effectiveness of Coles Phillips' creations for Community Silver. But when the pretty girl only arouses a man's interest in her physical charms she distracts him from consideration of the commodity for sale. A comparison of advertising ten years ago and today will show that there has been a decided drift from the use of the latter type of girl to that of the former; this is particularly noticeable in the advertising in woman's magazines. But there are yet far too many pretty girls that only distract than there should be.

Direct or Indirect Appeals.—Anyone who is a leader can give direct commands to those who recognize his leadership and they will obey. They will moreover, enjoy following him. An elderly salesman can very frequently assume a fatherly attitude, as is said, toward younger men. When he does so he tells them directly what to do just as though he was talking to his own son. And the young prospect, if it is properly done, likes the older man's attitude. But the elderly salesman cannot employ such tactics toward men of his own age nor toward young men who occupy a more important position in business or society.

A printed letter from *The —— Monthly* began as follows:
My dear Sir:

Have you made the very wisest possible arrangement for that most precious of all possessions—your leisure hours?

The rush of life today has reached such a pitch that if one doesn't definitely plan to extract the greatest benefit, pleasure, and relaxation from them one wakes up at the end of another year, just so much the loser.

Because we believe that you agree with us that intelligent discussion provides a great deal of the true zest of life, we should be particularly happy to have you follow *The —— Monthly* for the coming year.

Here is an attempt at motivation. But several college professors, who received the letter were antagonized by the first sentence. Apparently they did not feel that *The —— Monthly* should question the use of their time. The desired effect might have been obtained by a more indirect appeal such as, "Have you ever stopped to think that the most precious of all your possessions is your leisure time?"

The following copy has little value because the advertiser tells the reader altogether too directly that he has treated him fairly.

LOYALTY AND FAIR DEALING

The Mackay System—POSTAL TELEGRAPH-COMMERCIAL CABLES—throughout its existence has endeavored to follow the course of loyalty and fair dealing both with the public and with its employees.

How well it has succeeded is attested by the liberal patronage of the former, which has made possible its tremendous growth from humble beginnings to the world's longest system of telegraphs and cables, and by the extraordinary continuous-service records of many of its employees.

Thus fair dealing by POSTAL TELEGRAPH-COMMERCIAL CABLES has succeeded in winning public approval and the intelligent and loyal cooperation of its superior staff, with the result that today it is able to offer the fastest and most accurate wire communication service in the world.

If instead of this copy some incident were related which would cause the reader to think, "They treat you pretty squarely, don't they!" the effect would have been more nearly what the writer judges they desired.

Most adults recognize this principle in their daily intercourse with others, for they will go to considerable trouble to get a friend to recommend them for a job or to secure some favor instead of praising themselves.

When aid is asked for a charity, direct appeals can be made because the prospect knows the one who makes the appeal is acting unselfishly and from the highest of motives.

A half-page advertisement in *The New York Times* for the American Relief Committee for sufferers in Austria depicted the head of a healthy, happy baby. The copy was introduced by, "Your Baby Smiles," and read as follows:

Happy, well-fed, and comfortable—an American baby.

In Austria, no baby smiles. They are starving—babies and little children—cold, miserable, dying.

"When a baby is put on a diet of cabbage as soon as it is weaned, it generally dies," says Mrs. Jerome Stoneborough—just from Vienna.

A second heading in the middle of the advertisement, "Will America save these little Ones?" introduces the remaining copy:

All true Americans will give now to help these Austrian children.

Every cent goes to the aid of the destitute—none of it for expenses, etc.

In one such charitable campaign two circulars were employed, one listing the prominent citizens who sponsored the matter and

the other telling of the need and asking for funds. Very satisfactory results were obtained, except from one group of a thousand of whom not a single person replied. Upon inquiry it was discovered that in this case the clerk who sent out the letters failed to enclose the first circular. Here the direct appeal failed because it was not made perfectly clear that the person who signed it was a disinterested party, and merely acting in behalf of a group of prominent men and women.

In influencing others it is important to recognize the relationship that will be taken instinctively by the buyer to the seller. If the buyer will naturally look up to the seller direct appeals are in order; if he views the seller as equal or inferior, direct appeals will, in all probability, arouse antagonism.

In the eagerness to render service, which is a very worthy ideal, many overlook the fact that when service is openly offered it always implies superiority of the seller over the buyer. Only when the buyer is instinctively submissive to the seller, or recognizes that the seller is an expert and so knows more along his particular line, should the seller use the phrase, "Let me help you."

Questions

1. Why should the use of humor and the unpleasant be safeguarded?
2. When should a "pretty girl" be used?
3. Explain the proper use of "direct" and "indirect" appeals.
4. Prepare an advertisement to occupy a quarter-page in a newspaper in which the reader will be properly motivated to do one of the following:
 - a. Join the local Chamber of Commerce.
 - b. Support some local charitable organization.
 - c. Start a savings account in a local bank.
5. Is your advertisement composed of "concrete" or "abstract" words? Does it make the reader imaginatively see what you are presenting? Does it make him really want to do what you desire?

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CHAPTER XVIII

EMPHASIZING THE OBSTACLE

Arousing a want through motivation is not always an effective way of selling, because the motivation may cause the prospect to want something other than that sold by the seller. A man figuring on buying an auto because both he and his wife want one will most likely respond to a life insurance agent's appeal to take out insurance for the sake of his wife, by thinking of the pleasure his wife will get out of the car. And the more the salesman stresses "love for wife" the more the prospect decides to buy the auto, not the insurance.

In cases of this sort the salesman is more likely to succeed if he focuses the prospect's attention upon the *obstacle* that causes dissatisfaction and must be removed before he can obtain satisfaction. So the life insurance salesman must nearly always cause his prospect to contemplate the loss of income to his family if he should die. It is that possible obstacle to his wife's happiness which life insurance eliminates. When a prospect comes to realize that obstacle and associates it with his love for his wife, he is forced to consider life insurance rather than an auto.

Judson's prospect (Chap. IV) says, "I am loaded up with insurance and couldn't carry any more if I wanted to." He is indifferent to the whole subject. And Judson gets his interest by saying, "Did it ever occur to you that your life insurance might prove to be no protection at all for your family?" Judson gets that interest by implying that all those things the prospect wanted for his family, for which he had already bought insurance, might not yet be secured. His wants are again blocked. Judson goes on then to show how lump insurance is frequently inadequate.

Similarly, the gasoline pump salesman (Chap. IV) recalled to the hardware dealer that a hitch rack in front of the store had



Two commuters were discussing the worries of the modern furnace-

"Pretty snappy morning. Guess Winter is here at last! Started my furnace this morning—"

"Oh! So did I. Now we begin seven months of Purgatory. Got the best heater on the market, but my house is always cold when we get up."

"Thank Goodness I have solved my heating problems! I simply attached a Minneapolis Heat Regulator to my furnace—then all my troubles were over. Saved coal—nearly half a ton a month—and always had just the right temperature all over the house, day and night. I saved the wages, besides, of the man who used to tend furnace for us. All I have to do now is to put on a few shovelfuls of coal before I leave in the morning and again before I go to bed. My wife doesn't even have to think of the furnace any more, because the Minneapolis constantly maintains the exact temperature we desire during the day, no matter how cold it becomes outside. At night the Regulator automatically keeps the fire low. Then at six in the morning old Minneapolis gets busy, opens the drafts of the furnace, and by 7 when we get up, the whole house is fine and warm. It's not only the greatest boon to health and perfect comfort ever invented, but it soon saves its cost in fuel."



Ever stop to think who regulates the furnace while you are at business?



A furnace doesn't require constant watching with this device—it is regulated automatically



Call Vanderbilt 5388, ask Clarence O. Baring, New York Distributor, to send you the illustrated descriptive booklet "The Convenience of Comfort," or write for a copy today.

The "MINNEAPOLIS" HEAT REGULATOR

NEW YORK OFFICE: 5635 Grand Central Terminal Building. NEWARK OFFICE: 671 Broad St.—Phone Market 3542

FIG. 39.—Emphasizing the obstacle. Motivation also employed in the small cut.

been in earlier days a great asset in getting business and convinced him that the present lack of such a device was responsible for his poor trade. It was easy then to sell him a gasoline pump as the modern substitute for a hitch rack.

In both of these cases, the key to the sale was the obstacle.

The writer once listened to a salesman's futile attempt to sell wrenches and similar tools to a garage man. Later on that afternoon, when the garage man had vainly sought for a small wrench through drawer after drawer of tools, the salesman said to him, "Here's what you want," and unrolled on the bench a leather container with a full set of small wrenches. The garage man took one look at it, picked out the wrench he wanted, rolled up the container, and put it in his pocket. This salesman reported that he sold four to five of these sets a day merely by waiting until the mechanic could not find one of his little tools. His whole sales strategy was in terms of waiting for a real obstacle and then utilizing it. A better salesman might create the same obstacle imaginatively in the mind of the mechanic and so sell with less loss of time.

The advertisement in Fig. 39 illustrates emphasis upon the obstacle to the prospect's wants, namely, "uneven temperature in the home," and especially, "cold when we get up." The small cut to the left illustrates motivation, appeal to the man's love for his wife. He can eliminate cold in the morning and hard work for his wife by buying a Heat Regulator.

When a prospect is indifferent to the whole subject, and particularly when he has continued a long time without making an effort to change, or when he is ignorant of the cause of his unsatisfied wants, the salesman should make him clearly and forcefully aware of the obstacle.

What the Obstacle is.—*The obstacle is that which prevents the prospect from getting what he wants.* Either the presence or absence of an object may constitute an obstacle. The lump-sum provision in the policy of Judson's prospect is an example of the former type. The absence of the hitch rack and small wrench exemplify the latter form.

There is little difficulty in determining what the obstacle is if the seller views the subject from the buyer's point of view. He will then have some comprehension of what the buyer wants

and why he does not get it. But the salesman who is viewing the subject from the seller's point of view will practically always fail to locate the obstacle, as the term is used here. Such a salesman will think of the obstacle as the cause of his not making a sale. He will confuse obstacle with objection.

Distinction between Obstacle and Objection.—The distinction between the obstacle to satisfying the prospect's want and the prospect's objection to buying is very important. Once in a while they are identical, but almost always they are not. They are identical when the prospect wants to buy the commodity very much. Then lack of money may be the only obstacle; and at the same time it will form the objection to buying. In such cases ways and means are being sought by the prospect to eliminate the obstacle, and if the seller can help, he will most likely secure the sale. A rather unusual case of this sort occurred some time ago when houses were very scarce. An auto salesman had about completed a sale when the prospect was notified that the house he was renting had been sold and he would have to move. This meant that unless he could rent another, his family would have to live with his wife's people in another city until autumn and he would have little use for an auto. The salesman appreciated the situation and helped him find a house. In doing so he eliminated the obstacle which was also an objection to buying, and secured the order.

But when the prospect is not already very anxious to buy the seller's product, the obstacle is not identical with any of the objections.

Objections are excuses, alibis, rationalizations, trumped-up explanations why one will not buy. Or they are reasons why the salesman's product is not as desirable as somebody else's. Seldom does a prospect worry about an objection. They are concocted to worry the salesman and get rid of him. Nearly always they are a polite way of saying, "I am not interested. I don't want your commodity."

An obstacle, on the other hand, does worry the prospect, if he is aware of it. For it is because of the obstacle that he is unhappy, dissatisfied, uncomfortable. If the prospect is not aware of the obstacle, he is just as unhappy, but he has not yet "put his finger" upon the cause.

Almost the worst thing that a salesman can do is to emphasize an objection to buying. The proper method is to ignore objections, to get the prospect to cease thinking about them. But the salesman nearly always helps his case by making clear to the prospect what the obstacle is; and in some cases the obstacle is the key to the sale.

How the Obstacle Should Be Presented.—The Dairymen's League advertisement (Fig. 40) plays up an obstacle extremely

**How much do you pay
for your luncheon?**

WE don't mean the actual amount of the bill. For how long after lunch is your brain clogged and heavy, your keen mind dulled by too much or the wrong food?

Eat a lighter lunch. *Drink plenty of milk.* It will give you all the energy and strength you need and keep your mind clear for the job.

DAIRYMEN'S LEAGUE
CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATION, INC.
UTICA, N. Y.

FIG. 40.—Emphasizing an obstacle to success.

The clerk ordered
“*Steak and potatoes with onions*”
The president
“*Milk and crackers*”

THEY chose their lunches perhaps without thinking. It was significant just the same. The clerk's work could be done in spite of the sleepiness and lethargy caused by a heavy lunch.

The president of the company had to keep his mind clear, and keen for the daily job. He couldn't weight his system with food that robbed his brain of mental energy.

Every brain worker should eat a light lunch. Plenty of milk will supply the energy needed.

**DAIRYMEN'S
League**

CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATION, INC.
General Office Utica, N. Y.
New York City Executive Office : 282 Fifth Avenue
Branches:
645 E. 17th St. 685 W. 49th St. 329 E. 131st St.
Hawthorne, Weehawken, A. R. & Somerset Sts.

FIG. 41.—Emphasizing an obstacle, with motivation.

well. A heavy lunch causes a dull mind for most of the afternoon and lowers efficiency. Eliminate the obstacle by eating a light lunch, by drinking milk, is its message. The second advertisement (Fig. 41) not only plays up the obstacle, but also motivates the reader. Milk and crackers are associated with successful executives; a heavy lunch with clerks. The second advertisement is stronger because of this double appeal.

An unusual example of an obstacle is given in a Tecla advertisement, headed, “A Reproach that Often Passes for a Compliment.” The copy reads:

A man gives some commonplace gift to a woman, and the woman says: "Thank you so much, it is just what I expected!" Then the man pats himself on the back for his discernment, and actually takes for a compliment what is intended to be a reproach!

"Just what I expected!" . . . in other words . . . she just knew you would buy the obvious and the ordinary . . . she just knew you wouldn't discover the unique and exceptional . . . she just knew you would give her just what she expected!

This time let it be Tecla Pearls—the unique and unexpected!

Note how raising this obstacle—"Just what I expected!"—immediately tends to exclude most gifts from consideration. The gift to be bought must now satisfy both the want to buy her something that will please her and also satisfy the want to give an unusual gift.

In telling a man what it is that prevents him from getting what he wants, the seller should outline briefly what the man knows and tell in more detail what he does not know. To tell what he knows in detail only bores him; to outline too briefly what he does not know at all only leaves him with a vague impression.

Of course, it is not always easy to determine how much a prospect knows. But a few well-chosen questions will frequently lead the prospect to say enough to make this clear.

Although a research man can analyze an obstacle and outline a solution in a more thoroughgoing way than a salesman, yet the research man is usually a very poor salesman because he leaves out of account the feeling side of the whole subject. The prospect must be made to want that which the obstacle prevents him from getting. Unless he feels the want at the time he considers the obstacle, he will do nothing.

Following is the copy of an advertisement of the Columbia Trust Company which appeared in *The New York Times* of Nov. 7, 1921. There is presented very clearly an obstacle that may arise which will prevent a man's plans for his family from being carried out as he desires. The advertisement was headed—"No Money to pay the bills—Why this well-to-do family's income was suddenly cut off." The copy follows:

A New York family had been receiving steady income under a Trust Fund administered by an exceptionally fine type of business man as Trustee. In the course of time, the Trustee died.

Then, as there was no one legally empowered to continue paying out income from the Trust Fund, the payments ceased.

What happened?

First, a long wait occurred while the *Executors* of the Trustee's *own* estate made a formal accounting to the court.

Next, all the persons interested were obliged to petition the court, through legal counsel, for the appointment of a Substitute Trustee. Weeks and months dragged by. Meanwhile the family funds ran low. Money had to be borrowed under hard conditions at frequent intervals.

Lastly, the court, when it had examined the accounts of the deceased Trustee, at length approved them. A Substitute Trustee was then appointed.

We know this case intimately, because the Columbia Trust Company was the Substitute Trustee appointed.

The actual distress suffered by the above family—more serious than the mere stated facts indicate—would have been avoided had we been appointed Trustee in the first instance years ago.

Over and over again we must say this:

Individual Executors and Trustees die. It is regrettable but inevitable.

The Columbia Trust Company is a corporation whose work goes on continuously. There can be and is no interruption—no halting—no uncertainty.

If you have a mind that *thinks through* to final conclusions, we suggest that you let us explain in detail how this Company would unswervingly carry out your wishes when you are no longer here.

Although this is an effective advertisement, the writer believes it would be stronger if there were more phrases like, "actual distress suffered by the above family," inserted throughout the copy. See the advertisements in Figs. 5 and 9 for other examples of use of the obstacle.

How to Determine What the Prospect's Obstacle is.—Occasionally the determination of the prospect's obstacle is a research job. Recently, mileage books were reintroduced by the railroads. Before this was done, the Interstate Commerce Commissions announced certain regulations governing the accounting to be done by the railroads in issuing and checking up mileage books. Sometime before the new system went into effect, a company selling bookkeeping machines completed its study of what a railroad would have to do to meet the Interstate Commerce Commission regulations, and put upon the market certain bookkeeping machines to do the work. The company's research staff located all the obstacles the railroad officials would meet, and found a solution through the use of their equipment. After the

salesmen were trained with respect to their product and also with respect to the new requirements, they were sent out to sell the railroads. Here the salesmen utilized the results of their research staff.

When a woman has purchased a washing machine, she expects to get a good deal of satisfaction out of using it. If she does not, she is naturally much disappointed and her adverse comments will prevent some possible sales in the neighborhood. Here is an obstacle to the buyer's want after purchase instead of before purchase; and an obstacle that is also an objection to some other purchase. As a result of this situation, an interesting alliance has been formed between the American Washing Machine Manufacturer's Association and leading soap manufacturers having in view the eventual object of making it possible for women all over the country to get exactly the right combination of washing machine, soap, and water.

Whether locating the obstacle is delegated to a research staff or is left to the individual salesman, its discovery depends upon someone in the seller's organization "getting close" to the prospect. An organized attempt to do this is frequently spoken of as *Consumer Analysis* (see Chap. VIII for details).

It is not easy, however, to discover why a person buys this and not that. At the moment of purchasing for the first time, a buyer has a variety of ideas in mind. But if asked sometime later why he bought, most of these ideas have disappeared and it is a real question if he can then give exact explanations.

Undoubtedly, the best way today to find out what wants are satisfied and what obstacles are eliminated by a product, is to use the product oneself and to discuss its use with thirty or more *bona fide* users; also with some who have used it but have ceased to do so. In the course of this procedure an effort should be made to get the buyer's point of view and have as little thought of selling in mind as possible. Some business concerns prefer to have outsiders get this information; others insist that their own salesmen can supply all the information needed.

In all such attempts to obtain the consumer's views, the writer would emphasize the value of obtaining concrete incidents rather than answers to more or less abstract questions. What a person does is more significant and reliable than what he says.

Townsend¹ relates several experiences reported by consumers, two of which are reproduced here.

The following letter was received by the New York branch of an automatic heat-control device, attachable to furnaces. It was from a man living in a suburban town:

"Gentlemen: I can't resist the temptation of sending you the data herewith. Without acquaintance with the methods of advertising it would seem to me that this story could be woven into a remarkably impressive document for your newspaper work. Four of us were playing whist the other morning, in the smoker, en route to New York. It was the first really cold day of the year, and our conversation turned to our respective furnaces. One of the gentlemen last year installed your automatic control, and he was eager to tell us about it. The game stopped. He went on to say that he wondered why the rest of us permitted our wives to be drudges and furnace-slaves all day long. Surely, it was not necessary for the womenfolk to stoke the furnaces and keep a sharp watch out over them. When they became too warm, it was necessary to go down into the cellar and regulate the furnaces, and when there was a chill in the air, the same thing was necessary all over again.

"The truth of his statements impressed us. I know I felt a little ashamed of myself, for our furnace requires as much attention as a crying baby. Why not show four men in a smoking car, on a wintry morning, discussing furnaces and the heat question, and permit the copy to be written just about as we talked it that morning? I think it would prove a fine advertising document."

The suggestion was immediately adopted (see Fig. 39).

A young woman, left unexpectedly dependent upon her own resources, went to California, and with her slender capital started a tiny roadside tea-house along one of the macadam high ways much frequented by motorists. In the preparation of many fancy dishes she grew to know very well and to rely upon a certain food ingredient, then widely advertised.

It occurred to her to write her own experiences with the product as the feature of a booklet and to have it illustrated with actual scenes in and around that California bungalow.

"I will write this booklet if you are interested," she said in a letter to the advertising department of the company. "It occurred to me that I might give them away in my own place, where they would serve as a sort of attractive yet useful souvenir."

A first the advertiser was indifferent, but the woman was told half-heartedly, that she might put the material together and submit it.

When that copy arrived it was so good that it set the entire plant buzzing. It was printed, with its unusual illustrations, and is still in great demand.

Advertising material, obtained in this manner, is always in the nature of human documents, essentially true; and by some strange prank of the gods,

¹TOWNSEND, A. L., "Making the Consumer a Member of the Advertising Staff," *Printers' Ink*, Nov. 24, 1921.

it hits upon themes that the professional advertising writer might not discover in a life time.

Emphasizing an Obstacle Frequently Arouses Determination.

A standard method of closing in selling life insurance is to call attention to the possibility that the prospect cannot pass the physical examination. It is surprising how frequently a prospect who has shown no interest up to that point will put himself out to take an examination. The challenge that maybe he cannot pass makes him want to pass. It is the same thing that makes a child cry when a person picks up some object near him and refuses to give it to him. He had no use for it until someone showed interest in it. The principle is even better illustrated in the game of seizing a small child's hand. He immediately strives to get away. As he struggles, success from time to time gives him great glee. The obstacle automatically causes the release of a great deal of energy; and as the obstacle is overcome, a great deal of elation.

Many a hard thing in life is performed just for the sheer fun of doing it. There must be some excuse for the performance, but many a time it would not be done if it were not considered a feat. Many a man raised a million in the liberty loan campaigns who would not have done anything if his quota had been ten thousand.

This use of an obstacle to secure determination, fight, is seldom seen in advertising and occurs too seldom in selling. All of the attention is given to making the thing easy. But there are times when making the action hard is the better tactics. Nearly all sales managers use this appeal in the handling of salesmen. They drive their men fearfully by setting up seemingly impossible tasks and tantalizing them to go after them.

Summary.—Focusing attention upon the obstacle is the first step in satisfying a want, as has been pointed out repeatedly. All the hitherto vague longing becomes concentrated on this one thing. And then one possible solution seems to pop into mind. It is just this state of mind that it is desired to secure in selling. For when a prospect is in this mood he has a genuine desire and interest in any suggestion that is made.

Questions

1. Distinguish between the three aspects of a want.
2. What is the obstacle? How is it to be distinguished from an objection?

3. Why are sellers particularly prone to overlook the obstacle?
4. How may a seller locate the obstacle?
5. What is meant by the statement, "Causing the prospect to concentrate upon the obstacle is one of the best ways of 'funneling' motivation to the desired action?"
6. What is meant by the statement, "Recognition of the obstacle is the first step in the solution?"
7. Select ten advertisements that illustrate good use of the obstacle.
8. Outline how determination can be aroused through the use of an obstacle. Give an example from selling.

Reference

WOODWORTH, R. S.: "Psychology," chap. XX, 1921.

CHAPTER XIX

ESTABLISHING THE ADEQUACY OF THE SOLUTION

The preceding three chapters have dealt with the problem of making the prospect want. The problem of convincing him that the seller's commodity is an adequate solution to his wants will now be discussed.

This major problem may be discussed in terms of the three headings: first, demonstrating that the solution is adequate; second, proving that the seller's solution is better than a competitor's solution; and third, establishing the fact that the commodity is needed.

DEMONSTRATION THAT COMMODITY IS ADEQUATE

The very best way to establish in a prospect's mind that a commodity is adequate, that it will serve the purpose for which he wants it, is to *demonstrate* the matter, as was pointed out in Chap. XIII. The writer remembers very distinctly how a friend of his who was selling high-grade steel furniture, answered his query as to whether the mahogany finish would stand hard usage. He simply handed the writer a piece of metal nicely enameled, and told him to bend it. This was done rather gingerly. The salesman asked to have it bent several times. Then he said, "That's no test." He took the metal from the writer, and banged it around with a wooden mallet for some time. Finally straightening it he asked, "Are there any flaws?" All the explanations about finishing methods in the world would never convince a man as did that demonstration.

But in many cases an actual demonstration is impossible. Then the salesman must manage to create the same effect by his description of the commodity, suggestion of the prospect's need, and *explanation* of how one will adequately satisfy the other. Turn to the Bagley-Barnes interview, Chap. III, or to the interviews in Chap. IV for examples of how a salesman describes and

explains his proposition. Illustrations from advertising are to be found in Figs. 2, 5, 6, 9, 10, 15-18, 22, 23, 26, 29, 34, and 35.

The ideal in many cases is not to advance any more ideas than are necessary to bring the prospect to a decision. This is because of the tendency to doubt the one who "doth protest too loudly." It is generally believed that a fact should stand by itself and not need much bolstering up by reasons. A reason, moreover, can always be disputed and sometimes sight is lost of the proposition because of interest in the argument.

The *recommendations* of satisfied users may well be used in place of personal demonstration. What his own friends say is of most weight to a prospect, then come the recommendations of experts, especially disinterested experts, then those of acquaintances, and finally of strangers. All this is illustrated in the selection of a dentist. The experience of a man's wife counts far more than that of his physician. But if nothing is known about any dentist the recommendation of a stranger will be followed in preference to the selection of an absolutely unknown man. (See Figs. 2, 6, 7, and 17 for examples of advertisements stressing recommendations.)

Guarantees and promises of "money back" are valuable substitutes for an actual demonstration for they make it possible for the purchaser to try out the article and then decide instead of having to make a decision without experiential knowledge. Note how the guarantee in the advertisement in Fig. 4 strengthens the whole proposition.

To convince a prospect that a commodity is adequate it is necessary actually to demonstrate the matter or to lead him to see imaginatively that it will be satisfactory. It is also necessary in some cases to convince the prospect that *he himself can use* the commodity aside from the fact that others can do so (see Fig. 14). This phase of demonstration is often overlooked. There are still a good many people who have not bought an auto because they cannot drive and are afraid they could not learn. Thousands would paint their autos if they were given a lesson. The sale of food products has been aided greatly by demonstration in stores and by giving recipes for their preparation. Care must be taken, however, that the outlined procedure is possible. Apparently many concerns have not yet discovered that the average

woman has very little money to spend and cannot use the elaborate recipes often published.

The most usual way to establish the adequacy of a solution is by stating one reason after another for buying it. These reasons primarily concern wants and have little or nothing to do with adequacy in the true sense. Thus in the illustration given on page 251, lawn mower X is urged upon the prospect because it is easier to push; and lawn mower Y, because it is \$3 cheaper. Neither of these reasons has anything to do with the efficiency in cutting grass. In most cases emphasizing such reasons is more effective than presenting real evidence that one or the other commodity is actually superior in terms of its use. But there are times when such evidence is desired by the prospect. And it is of such cases that this chapter treats.

PROOF THAT ONE COMMODITY IS BETTER THAN ANOTHER

In the Zonite advertisement (Fig. 42) the desirable features of an antiseptic are given and data are presented showing that Zonite is superior to Carrel-Dakin's solution in these respects. The only way to escape this conclusion is to question the methods employed in ascertaining the data.

Another example of proof is the following, taken from an advertisement of Valentine's Valspar.

"House Furnishing and Care" is one of the courses of the Home Economics Department at George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. In connection with this course, the Department decided to conduct a scientific and absolutely impartial test as to the relative durability of floor finishes.

Test Number One: a long, narrow walkway was constructed and marked off into twenty-two test sections. One-third of the walk way was finished with different brands of varnish; one-third with oil preparations; the remainder with paints.

A railing paralleled the walkway, thus compelling the several hundred students who entered the building *daily* to traverse the entire length of the walk. The amount of wear received was undoubtedly equivalent to many years' use in any ordinary home.

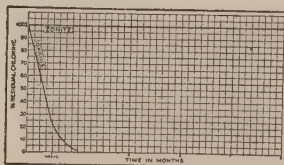
At the end of the testing period—approximately six months—the comparative durability of the different finishes was judged by faculty members and graduate students—seventy-three in all. Of the twenty-two test sections, number 5, finished with Valentine's Valspar, showed the least wear *and won the test!*

To the Physicians, Surgeons and Dentists of New York

We are sending you today a complete laboratory report on the antiseptic Zonite, and a bottle of the product for testing purposes. Doctors are busy men, constantly showered with advertising letters and pamphlets. We take this method, therefore, of calling your particular attention to the importance of the report sent you by this Company, and present herewith a few of the facts most essential to a knowledge of our product.

Zonite is a concentrated, stabilized and improved form of the Carrel-Dakin Solution prepared by a patented electrolytic process. It more nearly approaches the ideal antiseptic than any other germicide now available. We make this statement knowing that it has been substantiated by exhaustive laboratory and clinical tests and that it has been endorsed by every biologist and surgeon who has investigated the product.

The disadvantages of the Carrel-Dakin Solution are difficulty of preparation, lack of uniformity, instability and loss of effectiveness in the presence of organic matter. On the other hand, Zonite is ready to use, uniform, stable and much more efficient in the presence of organic matter. As an indication of this you will find below two tables and a chart which are the result of a laboratory investigation of Zonite and Dakin's.



Stability test of Zonite and Dakin's over a period of five months

The laboratory making the test to the left has the following to say in their report concerning same: "In order to determine stability, samples of Zonite were kept under observation for a period of two years and the total available chlorine determined every two months. During the test year no detectable loss in strength occurred while less than 0.3 of a gram per liter was lost during the entire period."

Phenol coefficient test of Zonite and Dakin's against B Typhosus suspended in water

The test to the right shows the relative effects of Phenol, Zonite and Dakin's Solution upon typhoid bacilli when suspended in water in the absence of large quantities of organic matter.

Please note that in the absence of organic matter the variation in germicidal strength between Dakin's Solution and Zonite is almost exactly in proportion with the amount of available chlorine present.

Dilution	Phenol	Minutes of Exposure to Disinfectant					Phenol
		5	10	15	20	25	
Zonite	1:100	+	+	+	+	+	100 300 360
	1:150	+	+	+	+	+	80 90 100
	1:200	+	+	+	+	+	3
	1:400	+	+	+	+	+	100 140 180
Dakin's Solution	1:100	+	+	+	+	+	80 90 100
	1:150	+	+	+	+	+	3
	1:200	+	+	+	+	+	100 140 180
	1:400	+	+	+	+	+	80 90 100
Phenol	1:100	+	+	+	+	+	3
	1:150	+	+	+	+	+	100 140 180
	1:200	+	+	+	+	+	80 90 100
	1:400	+	+	+	+	+	3

PHENOL COEFFICIENT ZONITE 1:100
DAKIN'S SOLUTION 1:150
AVAILABLE CHLORINE ZONITE 0.001
DAKIN'S SOLUTION 0.001

Dilution	Number of Surviving Organisms at End of					Available Chlorine in Dilution
	5 Min.	15 Min.	30 Min.	45 Min.	60 Min.	
ZONITE						
1:10	000	000	000	000	000	9.53 grams per liter
1:15	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:20	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:30	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:40	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:50	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:100	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:150	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:200	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:300	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:400	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:500	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:1000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:2000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:4000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:8000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:16000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:32000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:64000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:128000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:256000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:512000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:1024000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:2048000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:4096000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:8192000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:16384000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:32768000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:65536000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:131072000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:262144000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:524288000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:1048576000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:2097152000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:4194304000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:8388608000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
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1:536870912000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
1:1073741824000	000	000	000	000	000	9.53
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1:34028239645870100284633876255300269294868756766646272000	000	000				

Real proof can only be given that one commodity is better than another when: (1) a common basis for comparison is established; and (2) both commodities are tested in exactly the same manner. These conditions have been met in the above two cases, also in the following, but such examples are rare.

In small, sample-sized packages, blank on the outside, were packed the four most popular brands of home-cooked wheat breakfast cereal on the Pacific coast.

Four hundred and twenty-five packages were filled with Germea. Another 425 packages were packed with our chief competitive brand, a popular seller. In a third 425 packages was packed our second chief competitive brand, and in the last 425 packages the brand of our third competitor.

As mentioned above, aside from the recipe, the packages were left absolutely blank, the brand being designated only by the code letters "A," "B," "C," "D."

Four hundred and twenty-five housewives from Bellingham, Washington, to San Diego, California, were then given the samples to test, each housewife receiving four samples—one sample of each brand. On a card which she was also given she recorded her first choice, her second choice, her third choice, and her fourth choice, and then mailed the card to us.

When all the votes were in and counted Sperry Germea had won.

Thus, in an absolutely "blind" test, where none of the women knew the brands they were testing—*basing their preference on deliciousness alone*—Germea was voted the most popular home-cooked wheat breakfast cereal.

Difficulties of Using Proof in Selling.—Proof that a commodity is superior to that of a competitor cannot be used in many cases because such procedure is viewed as more or less unethical. Most advertising mediums will not accept advertising setting forth direct comparisons with a named competitor. There is no such limitation upon personal selling but experience has shown that usually such comparisons are not helpful and that often they are detrimental as is pointed out below.

The Valspar advertisement has gone as far as it is permissible to go in proving superiority over competing lines. The omission of the names of competitors does not injure its own claims and does not give to competitors any publicity.

It is, however, entirely permissible to give proof that a dealer's trade-marked goods are superior to some staple like sugar or flour. The Zonite advertisement does only this, for Carrel-Dakin's solution is not a proprietary or trade-marked article but a solution that anyone can make up from a formula worked

out by Dr. Carrel and Professor Dakin during the war. In a recent Pet Milk advertisement a woman is depicted looking at a milk bill amounting to 80 cents. The 80 cents has been crossed out and 50 cents written at one side. The heading is "Economy without Sacrifice," and the first paragraph reads: "To reduce the cost of the family food without sacrifice either of quantity or quality is the fundamental problem of household economy. Pet Milk solves this problem on your milk bill." Here the contrast is between Pet Milk and ordinary milk, but not with any other named brand of milk.

Not only is it considered unethical for a dealer to compare a product with a competitor's too closely but it is also often useless to do so, for most competing commodities are very similar. Only when a decided difference can be brought out in favor of the seller's commodity is the prospect influenced to buy *because of the data*. For example, suppose Pet Milk had 2 per cent more milk in a can than C milk, or would keep from turning sour 15 minutes longer than B milk, these results, although favorable to Pet Milk would not be sufficiently striking to cause favorable action.

The aim of selling is to get action, not discussion. This statement leads directly to the third weakness of scientific proof as a selling process. Its usual effect is to focus attention on the pros and cons, to stop action until all the returns are in.

And in the fourth place scientific proof has little place in selling because nearly always the procedure in getting reliable data is complicated and unknown to the prospect. To attempt to give the prospect the whole story is only to bore him and frequently to make him desirous of hearing the other side, suspicious of the methods employed. Recently there was a good deal of political excitement over the execution of a murderer. Some claimed he was insane and that a test of his bodily fluids would show this. The controversy died down when chemists at the University of California and Stanford University reported there was no evidence of insanity. Scientific proof was employed here but only the results were announced. If the method had been outlined there would have been a greater clamor than before. For many would have attacked the methods whether they were qualified to do so or not and whether they understood them or not. As it was, everyone accepted the results as final.

It is the business of the salesman to learn as much as he can about his own and competing products and it is his business to study his prospects' needs and to determine what proposition should be submitted in terms of those needs—in other words the salesman should use in every way the results of experimentation and conclusive thinking. But it is seldom his duty to present all this to his prospect. Instead he should and usually must present these results in a form that the prospect can understand and be interested in.

ESTABLISHING THE FACT THAT THE COMMODITY IS NEEDED

In addition to the above it is often necessary to *overcome caution* before a prospect will be satisfied that the commodity is adequate and buy. From experience man learns that wants are not always safe guides to action. As a result he develops habits of caution, of going slow, of scrutinizing his proposed actions, of trying to figure out the consequences of the proposed solution to his wants. In other words, he comes more and more as he grows older to demand that the solution shall satisfy not only what he wants but what he needs.

It is this tendency to be cautious that is one of the causes of the *resistance* which every salesman experiences in trying to sell. It makes no difference what the proposition is, the mere fact that the salesman desires the prospect to do something, puts him immediately on the defensive.

Shopping around is in many respects simply and solely to overcome caution. Many times, of course, it is in order to see what is for sale. But frequently a person looks at competing propositions when he feels 99 per cent sure he will buy a certain one. He is fortifying himself so that later on if the purchase does not measure up to his expectations he can say, "Well I looked around pretty thoroughly and it was the best there was." Much of this shopping around is eliminated when confidence is established in the salesman, or in the trade-marked article.

Confidence or belief arises out of satisfaction from past experiences. It also arises naturally when what is read or heard fits into, is in harmony with, what is present in the mind. If there is lack of harmony, then doubt or disbelief arises. Because of the necessity of harmony between new reasons and old-established

lished ways of thinking it is very important that reasons which are given in selling shall be familiar ones. Absolute facts which are unfamiliar are not so effective as analogies and all sorts of specious arguments which are familiar.

A fine illustration of how what does not harmonize with a man's own views causes doubt and disbelief, was given in Chap. XIII in connection with Cook's claim to have discovered the North Pole. Gibbs came to Cook believing in him. Suddenly he changed from belief to doubt and the doubt changed into disbelief before the interview was over. As soon as he doubted then he noticed every discrepancy. The other reporters who met Cook later, never doubted and so never looked for discrepancies. Belief vanished when Gibbs realized that Cook's mind and his were at variance when they should have been in accord. Then he noticed that the variance consisted in defensive remarks by Cook, when in Gibbs' mind there seemed no need for defense.

Occasionally, a salesman has a remarkable proposition. Frequently, it is difficult to sell it just because it sounds too good. And when "it sounds too good" it arouses caution. The proper procedure in such cases is to tone down the reasons advanced. For example, the salesman of a new machine only claimed he could turn out in four hours the same amount of work which took eight hours when performed by the old process. Cutting the time in half was credible and so the salesman was able to secure permission to demonstrate his machine. Actually his machine completed the work in thirty minutes but if he said so at the start he aroused such suspicion that he seldom obtained a chance to demonstrate the fact.

Before a woman buys a dress, or the goods for a dress, she will consider one or more questions like the following:

Economy of money. Can I afford it? Can I postpone buying it? Is it worth the money? Is it a bargain? Should the money be used for some other purchase?

Economy of time. Have I time to shop? Have I time to make a dress? Will it take time that should be used for something else?

Economy of energy. Is it worth the effort? Will it tire me all out? Will it mean a strain for someone else, for example, mother?

Serviceability (*a*) durability. Will the material last? Will the pattern allow for alterations that are necessary with changes in style or with growth?

Serviceability (b) fashionableness. Is the dress a conservative style? Is it up-to-the-minute in style? Is it distinctive?

Serviceability (c) appropriateness. Will I have to wear it at all times when I will feel ill-at-ease because it is not just what the occasion demands? Is it suitable for several distinct occasions? Is there a chance that it is too old for me, too young for me?

Serviceability (d) launderability. Can it be washed with soap and water? Must it be dry-cleaned? Could it be trusted to the laundry, or to the washwoman? Will it shrink and fade?

Serviceability (e) comfort. Will it restrict bodily movements?

Beauty (a) in appearance. Is the color beautiful? the line? the material?

Beauty (b) becomingness. Does it suit my figure? Is the color good for me?

Preference of others. Will the other members of my family approve of it for me? Will my friends like it? Are my friends wearing something similar or just like it? Will I receive compliments by wearing it? Etc.

If the woman works out answers to such questions which are favorable to buying she will, of course, buy. Frequently favorable answers will come to her if she is supplied with proper information in advertisements or by salespeople. Such information is usually supplied in the form of reasons, as, "This cloth will not shrink and can be easily washed." "I am sure your husband will like it. Several men have urged their wives to buy this style since we put it on sale."

In a sense, all such reasons can be thought of as establishing the adequacy of the purchase. But they really go beyond mere adequacy and establish the fact that there is not going to be disappointment, because of some detail that was overlooked at the time of purchase.

The present trend is toward selling what is needed. Buyers must always be made to want. But more and more it is realized that they must be made to want what they need. And care must be exercised that they purchase what is really needed. In discussing this topic, Filene says:

I do believe that we shall see a change in the tone of advertising—more appeal to reason and less to emotion. Women and men will be told more about materials, quality, and cheapness of advertised articles.¹

Filene's recommendation for "less emotion" can be agreed with if he means mere general appeals to emotions, such as showing an auto in a beautiful woods, or driven by a beautiful girl.

¹ FILENE, E. A., "Mass Buying and Mass Selling, Too," *The Nation's Business*, p. 26, September, 1924.

Such appeals help sell, particularly through the agency of associating pleasant feelings with the commodity. But with autos and many other commodities, the selling problem is not so much to arouse wants for the commodity itself as to show how the particular brand will continue to be satisfactory for a long period of time. This requires demonstration that the auto seats, for example, will not soon wear out and that the car will not get stuck in an ordinary mud hole. If Filene, on the other hand, means by "less emotion" just what the words would indicate the writer must dissent. Every consideration affecting future satisfaction is fundamentally emotional. It is only because people like to have the upholstery good looking and get very irritated when stuck in a mud hole that these are worth while considerations.

The slogan should not be "more reason and less emotion" but rather "more adequate solution of a prospect's problems and less general eulogies of one's goods."

RATIONALIZATION

When an individual does not desire his real motives to be known he finds "reasons" or rationalizations, that will explain his action on a satisfactory basis. So if a man has work to do but wants to go to a baseball game he may explain that he is getting stale and needs a rest or that he will make a good business contact in taking Johnson to the game.

When he knows he is not telling the truth the rationalization is frankly a lie. But psychologists all emphasize that in a great many cases the rationalization is given without the individual's realizing he is telling an untruth, or rather not the whole truth, for a rationalization has usually some basis of fact in it.

The funnies in the newspapers supply us every day with illustrations of rationalizations. Our friend Clarence is shown preparing for a comfortable evening at home. He comes down to supper in his smoking jacket and slippers. After supper his wife suggests he should go down to the corner store and get some candy. He reminds her that she should not eat sweet stuff as she is trying to reduce, gets his newspaper, and then goes to the humidor. Not a single cigar! The next picture shows him dressed and going out the door. On his return he is

seen giving his wife a box of candy and explaining that he was only kidding when he said he would not go. All the way home Clarence was undoubtedly convincing himself that he did not go for the cigars but because his wife wanted the candy.

Consider another case. A is called upon by B to serve on the finance committee of a charitable organization. It is explained that C is chairman. A for business reasons is very anxious to become well acquainted with C. But A will never admit that he spends considerable of his time soliciting funds in order eventually to secure business from C. And regardless of what causes A to accept the committee appointment it is B's duty to supply A with a good assortment of reasons why he should accept. These reasons are employed by A to cover up his real motive, to make himself feel that he is acting on very unselfish grounds (for that makes A think more of himself) and to make it possible for him to convince others that the activity deserves real commendation.

Because man very often does not wish to reveal his real motives he covers them up in this manner by giving excuses, alibis, or explanations that are plausible and at the same time make him appear as a worthy character. Just because this is so it is often necessary to supply a prospect with rationalizations so that he may justify or conceal his selfish wants. The recent campaign to market raisins in 5-cent packages is a good illustration. No stenographer or office employee could afford to be caught eating during working hours. But after the public had been taught that raisins supplied iron and increased efficiency, it was possible to eat them openly before the boss. Only a few puny people trying desperately to add a pound ate raisins because of iron or efficiency. But thousands seized on these "reasons" and used them to rationalize their desire to eat.

In order to demonstrate that a commodity is adequate it is accordingly not sufficient in many cases to show that the commodity will satisfy the primary want for it, the seller must also make clear that the commodity will satisfy other secondary wants which the prospect has. The one secondary want that nearly always has to be taken into account is desire for approval from others. For example, suppose a woman found a set of red plush furniture that would match her rug and drapes and the more she looked at the set the more she wanted it. The chances

are, that in the year 1925 she would not buy it because she would realize that everyone would ridicule her selection as out of style. But if the salesman could convince her that the furniture was a genuine antique formerly owned by Marie Antionette she would be glad to purchase because possession of such an antique is socially approved of. Her real motive for buying would be her want for it. But the explanation she would give would be in terms of antiques.

Because people, in general, are all very clever at fooling others and also themselves whenever an action may be interpreted as not creditable, it is very difficult, if not impossible, for people to explain why they do this or buy that. In many a consumer analysis the results have shown far too much emphasis on intellectual reasons. All such returns should be viewed as rationalizations until it is certain they do express the true reasons for action. In such cases the seller should then make sure that the buying public comes to have in mind both the real wants to be satisfied by his product and also the rationalized explanation.

Because man does not want anyone to think he has acted impulsively he feels the need for reasons to explain his actions to others. If a man has agreed to buy a residence lot and is asked by his wife or partner why he is doing so he must be able to explain the matter so that they will feel he has acted wisely. If he cannot "sell" them he tends to regret his action. Many a sale has been lost just because the prospect was not supplied with "*ammunition*" in the form of reasons that he could use to defend his contemplated purchase.

Whenever a sale has been made and the salesman feels that the prospect may not have a very clear idea of why he bought, it is a good practice for the salesman to mention one or more good reasons at an appropriate moment. This can be done as the parcel is handed to the customer in the store or as the salesman turns to leave a prospect in his office. Reasons so given tend to remain in the mind and so are recalled whenever the purchase is challenged.

Both Commodity and Trade Name Must Be Shown to be Adequate or the Best.—In the buying formula reasons are shown in connection with both commodity and trade name. If the prospect is wavering, for example, between buying tile or brick

for his house then reasons must be presented to show why tile, for example, is better. If, on the other hand, the prospect is certain he wants tile then reasons must be presented why the salesman's brand is best (see the advertisements in Figs. 15, 16, and 18).

In some lines very little effort is made to show that the commodity is adequate, although the advantages of the seller's brand may be well presented. This is poor policy for unless the prospect decides in favor of the seller's commodity, there is no chance of his buying the seller's brand. In many lines today this condition is remedied through cooperative advertising (see Figs. 10 and 11).

In selling, whenever a prospect is not confronted by competing claims all that is necessary is to show that the trade-named commodity is adequate for his purposes (see Figs. 2, 4-9, etc.). To endeavor to prove it is best under such a condition is only to make the prospect aware of the competitor's goods. But, when he is actively aware of them then reasons showing that the salesman's goods are best are essential. More detailed discussion of this point is reserved for Chap. XXVII.

Questions

1. Define the following terms: motivation, suggestion, rationalization, demonstration, explanation, proof, associating want with commodity.
2. Consider twenty-five or more advertisements in a current periodical or newspaper:
 - a. To what extent is proof given that the product is best?
 - b. To what extent are reasons given to demonstrate that the advertised product is adequate?
 - c. To what extent are reasons supplied establishing the fact that the product is needed?
3. Consider these same advertisements from the following angles:
 - a. To what extent are recommendations of others utilized?
 - b. To what extent are guarantees given?
 - c. To what extent is the reader assured he can himself use the product?
 - d. To what extent are rationalizations supplied?
4. To what extent are real reasons given by advertisers, as distinguished from mere assertions? Should real reasons be employed?
5. To that extent can the reasons, assertions, or statements be summarized under the general heading of "Associating Want with Commodity with Trade Name with Satisfaction?"

6. The following comparisons are very illuminating. Select at random twenty-five advertisements from a newspaper; twenty-five from a woman's magazine; twenty-five from an engineering magazine; and twenty-five from street-car cards. Compare these four groups in terms of the items in Questions 2 and 3.

References

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 "Advertising," chap. XVI, 1915.

CHAPTER XX

ASSOCIATING WANT WITH COMMODITY AND TRADE NAME

Chapters XVI to XVIII are devoted to arousing the want and Chap. XIX to establishing the adequacy of the solution. The problem now to be discussed is that of associating want and solution so that whenever the prospect feels the want he will recall the seller's product.

The best procedure, when efficient memory is desired, is to associate aroused want with a solution shown to be adequate. Man always tends to remember the solution to any of his desires.

There are, in addition, a number of factors which effect his memory. These constitute the subject matter of this and the next chapter.

Brand Names Are Not Equally Well Known.—Hotchkiss and Franken¹ asked 1,024 college men and women to write down the first trade name that occurred to them as they looked at 100 different commodity names. Typical of the results are the following with respect to the commodity baked beans:

	Males	Females	Total
Heinz.....	234	265	499
Van Camp.....	94	84	178
Campbell.....	92	81	173
Libby.....	2	6	8
Miscellaneous.....	10	13	23
Names not brands.....	41	38	79
Blanks.....	39	25	64
	512	512	1,024

¹ HOTCHKISS, G. B. and FRANKEN R. B., "The Leadership of Advertised Brands," Doubleday, Page & Company, 1923.

Clearly, Heinz has an advantage over his competitors, because his brand name flashes into the minds of 50 per cent of college people when the product is named.

Hotchkiss and Franken (page 32) comment as follows:

Practically every man names a manufacturer or brand of collars. Men could usually name brands of hats, garters, shoes, men's clothing, and underwear. Over 20 per cent could not name a brand of hosiery; a greater percentage could not name a brand of shirts, and gloves and handkerchiefs fared even worse. Still more of them were at a loss to name any brand or manufacturer of neckties. They could name rubber heels but not rubbers. They knew shaving soaps better than toilet soaps. They knew fountain pens better than pencils or ink and far better than brands of paper. All but 6 per cent could name some brand of phonograph, but nearly 25 per cent could not name any kind of piano . . .

Familiarity with brands was most pronounced in the fields in which advertising has been most extensive. None of the commodities that are near the bottom of the list in the degree of brand familiarity has been characterized by any extensive or persistent advertising campaign. Most of the commodities in which a better-than-average brand familiarity was shown are well advertised.

The data show that some concerns have succeeded in practically dominating the field. Below are listed a few examples.

		Males, per cent	Females, per cent	Total, per cent
Cameras.....	Eastman	92	84	88
Sewing machines....	Singer	82	72	77
Soups.....	Campbell	72	80	76
Collars.....	Arrow	84	66	75
Fountain pens.....	Waterman	82	66	74
Coffee substitutes....	Postum	72	78	74
Cleansers.....	Old Dutch	68	80	74
Chewing gums.....	Wrigley	76	58	67
Crackers.....	National Biscuit Co.	74	60	67
Grape juices.....	Welch	68	56	62

It is interesting to note that in the case of some commodities practically all the students gave some trade name. For example:

	Males, per cent	Females, per cent	Total, per cent
Chewing gums.....	98	94	96
Automobiles.....	96	95	95
Soaps.....	94	96	95
Baked beans.....	92	95	94
Watches.....	94	92	93

It is equally interesting to note that in the case of some commodities very few students were able to give any brand. For example:

	Males, per cent	Females, per cent	Total, per cent
Lace curtains.....	3	12	7
Ribbons.....	2	12	7
Umbrellas.....	12	12	12
Rice.....	24	19	21
Laces.....	9	35	22
Filing cabinets.....	35	17	26

The general characteristics of the dominant leaders (Eastman, Singer, Campbell, etc.), as given by Hotchkiss and Franken, are:

1. All have been on the market a considerable length of time. Several are the pioneers in their respective fields.
2. Nearly every one of them has been advertised persistently and continuously for the past 10 years.
3. Each one is probably the largest seller (certainly among the largest sellers) in its field.
4. Nearly all are used frequently. In most instances the name or brand would be discernible whenever the article was used, or when supplies for it were bought.
5. All are products of standard quality and of good reputation.

Such "controlled association" tests, as used by Hotchkiss and Franken, do not measure all of the value of advertising but they do measure fairly well the strength of the association connecting commodity and trade name.

In endeavoring to establish such an association the psychological law of forward association should be borne in mind.

LAW OF FORWARD ASSOCIATION

A printing press is designed to run in one direction only. It is impossible to reverse its motion and send the paper backwards. The same thing is true in whole or part, of many other mechanisms, including that of mental processes. The thinking machine unlike the printing press can go both ways, but it does not do so with indiscriminate ease.

Regardless of how expert an individual is in tying his necktie, or signing his name, or reciting a poem, or any other activity, he cannot easily reverse the action. You, the reader, cannot spell your name backwards in anything like the time you can spell it forwards, unless you have practiced it in the reverse order. Nor can you write your name backwards so that it will be accepted by a bank teller as your signature. When "George" is mentioned, you may think "Washington" or some other surname, but when "Washington" is mentioned you don't think backwards to "George" but forwards to "D. C.," or "first president," or the like. The average person will recite the alphabet forwards in about five seconds, but will require about forty-six seconds to say it backwards. And he will recite it backwards in terms of saying it forwards, *i.e.*, he will think "w, x, y, z," before reciting "z, y, x, w," etc.

In advertising, *ideas should be presented in the order in which they are to function in the reader's daily life.*

Suppose the advertisers of Congoleum teach women that Congoleum is something to be used on the floor. When Congoleum is mentioned, such a woman may respond, "Oh, yes, that's a floor covering!" But there is no great probability that when she is planning to fix up her floors, she will think backwards to Congoleum. On the other hand, suppose the advertiser talks about fixing up floors, and associates the idea with Congoleum. Then, when a woman reader begins to think of doing her floors over, she is reminded of Congoleum, and because she is in the mood to buy, she looks at some Congoleum the next time she goes to town.

The Congoleum advertisement in Fig. 43 was one of the first advertisements used to announce this product. At that time the name "Congoleum" was new and unknown. The writer came to notice this advertisement because in an experiment he was running, it was the poorest among about 100 full-page advertisements appearing that month. Although it had been

OAK FINISHED CONGOLEUM

For FLOORS and WAINSCOTING

The Rug Border Problem

IN these days of hygienic house-cleaning, rugs are used quite generally in place of carpets. The objection has been the expense of a hard wood floor to be exposed around the borders of the room.

To solve this problem, we offer Congoleum—a tough, hard-surfaced fabric with a finish that is an exact imitation of quartered oak. It costs only one-tenth as much and can be laid in place without skilled labor.

Looks Like Real Oak

Like an oak floor, Congoleum is heavily coated with a varnish, giving a brilliant high-grade polish. The



imitation of the grain of the wood is secured by a new process which produces an exact fac-simile of real oak.

Durability

Congoleum, like a wooden floor, will last as long as it is kept varnished. It is the hard varnish that actually takes the wear, and if this is renewed occasionally, Congoleum will give satisfactory service for years.

Other Uses

Aside from its use as a border for rugs, Oak Congoleum will be found desirable as a wainscoting, especially if used in conjunction



with a real wood top rail and base board.

Colors

Congoleum is made in two shades of oak—light and golden oak. It also can be obtained in parquet design in a handsome and effective pattern. We also make it in Slate Grey for very heavy wear, such as in vestibules, hallways, corridors and offices.

Lies Flat

Congoleum has ideal laying qualities. That is, it does not need to be nailed or glued to the floor—it has no tendency to curl up or kick up.

Booklet and Samples

If you cannot get Congoleum from your dealer, write us for sample and booklet and where it can be purchased.

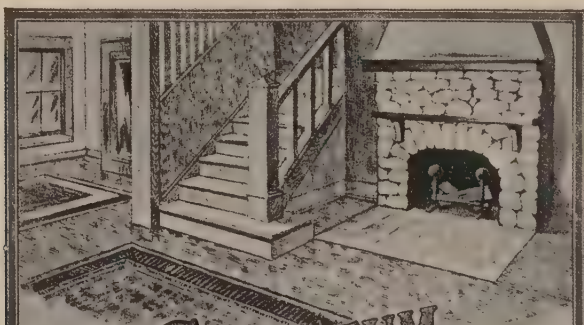
UNITED ROOFING & MANUFACTURING COMPANY
 PHILADELPHIA CHICAGO KANSAS CITY SAN FRANCISCO

FIG. 43.—Illustrating a violation of the law of forward association.

physically in front of the eyes of several hundred women, not a single one recognized it when it was shown a second time. Subsequently, the writer has been informed that this advertisement was a flat failure as to bringing in business. The advertisement in Fig. 44 appeared shortly afterwards. It must be judged as successful for even though it is not so good as many later

advertisements, yet it is typical of the advertising that established this product on the market.¹

The first Congoleum advertisement attempts to form the association "Congoleum-flooring." As already pointed out, the



CONGOLEUM

for
Flooring & Wainscoting

HERE is something entirely new in floor covering. It is a tough, durable fabric with a beautiful oak finish, heavily coated with a high grade varnish which gives a brilliant polish.

Also as a wainscoting in conjunction with a real wood top rail and base board it is very popular.

The finish is so perfect that, when you lay Congoleum on your floor, it is difficult to tell it from the real wood.

Congoleum is absolutely clean and can be washed with soap and water.

Congoleum will be found especially attractive as a border around rugs, as shown in above illustration.

Congoleum has ideal laying qualities. That is, it does not have to be nailed or glued to the floor; it has no tendency to curl.

It is made in two shades—light oak and golden oak. It also can be obtained in parquet design in a simple, handsome and effective pattern, as well as in plain slate grey. The rolls are a yard wide and 50 yards long. The dealer will sell any length required.

Booklet and sample free on request.

CONGO ROOFING.

Congo Roofing is the only roofing that is guaranteed to last for ten years and has that guarantee backed up by a real Surety Bond with every purchase.

If you buy Congo you buy a certainty. This bond is issued by the National Surety Company and is exactly the same as fire or life insurance, and means that your roof is absolutely guaranteed until 1921. Send for sample and copy of this bond.

UNITED ROOFING AND MANUFACTURING COMPANY

PHILADELPHIA CHICAGO KANSAS CITY SAN FRANCISCO

FIG. 44.—Associating occasion for buying with trade-name.

association is of little value for selling the product. The advertisement was a failure because readers will not look at, or read

¹ Some critic in "Judicious Advertising" pointed out at the time that this advertisement "has the fatal defect of dividing the attention between two subjects"—Congoleum and Congo Roofing. Today very few advertisers violate this principle of dividing attention between two or more products.

what, is unknown and unfamiliar. They only respond to what interests them. It is then not only relatively inefficient to form an association from trade name to use, but it is difficult to do so because the reader is not interested. The second Congoleum advertisement displays a living-room and staircase. Every woman who cares about an attractive home (this includes almost every woman) looks at the picture to see if there is any new idea expressed which she can utilize. She is in just the attitude to accept suggestions. Afterwards, when she is definitely considering floors, Congoleum tends to come into mind. Whether it does or not depends upon the strength of the association.

There is a puzzle the solution of which illustrates this point. It consists of a small, flat box with glass cover in which are four grooves running from the center to the four corners, and in each groove is a small marble. The stunt is to get the four marbles in the four corners. Practically no one ever succeeds except by chance. But if a suggestion is given concerning centrifugal force, most persons will grin, place the box on a table and spin it. Centrifugal force is associated in our minds with things flying out from the center. But getting marbles into outside corners does not remind people readily of centrifugal force. Although the principle is known, it is not used, because it is not properly associated in the mind.

Most everyone has had the experience of making a wrong response to a situation, and then, when the proper solution has been pointed out, of exclaiming, "Why, I knew that all the time!" It was "known," but it didn't help when the need arose for that knowledge. The associations were lacking connecting the problem to be solved with the needed information.

It must be recognized that sometimes a person works upward from the bottom to the top of an advertisement, and that in such cases an improperly arranged advertisement will leave a proper impression. It is true, also, that when a trade name is well known, it makes little or no difference where it appears on the page. Exceptions are inevitable. Nevertheless, in the long run, the most efficient order of presenting information is from Want to Commodity to Trade Name, because that is the association of most value to establish, and, because it is the easiest to establish.

ASSOCIATE OCCASION FOR BUYING WITH TRADE NAME

The law of forward association can very well be restated for selling purposes as: *associate occasion for buying with the trade name (or retail store)*. This is a corollary of the more general rule stated at the beginning of the chapter: *associate aroused want with a solution shown to be adequate*.

The Danderine advertisement (Fig. 45) has been run for years in newspapers. Any woman reader, who some morning notices



FIG. 45.—Associating occasion for buying with trade-name.

an unusual number of hairs in her hair brush and says to herself, "Am I losing my hair?" will notice this advertisement with particular interest. She will do so because it portrays an occasion she has just experienced. And the advertisement links up "falling hair" with "Danderine." Thereafter the woman will tend to think Danderine when she notices her hair coming out.

The "California Fig Syrup" advertisement (Fig. 46) is also an old standby. The sick, cross child reminds the reader of her child. When he is next sick or cross, she will quite likely think "California Fig Syrup." And it is only then that the advertiser desires the mother to think of his product. Another illustration is found in Fig. 38.

An old advertisement of Coca Cola reads:

Whenever
You're Hot, Tired, or Thirsty
Work, play, or weather hot—brain tired or body weary
Parched, dry, or just plain thirsty
Think of and Drink
Coco Cola

It is delightfully cooling and refreshing—relieves fatigue of body, brain, and nerves—quenches the thirst—not just wet and sweet, but vigorously satisfying.

Delicious—Refreshing—Wholesome
5¢ Everywhere

And a cut displays a young man and woman drinking it at a soda fountain with a clerk filling another glass. The strategy of such an advertisement is complete and perfect.

Contrast this with the much-discussed advertisement of Kellogg's Corn Flakes depicting Venus de Milo and the heading, "If Venus had Arms." Wonderful interest value without question. But of what value is any association that may be formed between Venus and Kellogg's!

Frankly, it must be recognized that as long as business men are impressed by mere size and think in terms of getting interest, such advertisements are of great value in influencing dealers and jobbers. However, the question of how to impress people as to the bigness of an advertising campaign is not being dis-



A SICK, CROSS CHILD NEEDS "CALIFORNIA FIG SYRUP"

MOTHER! Move Child's Bowels with this Harmless
Laxative—Children Love Its Taste

If your child is constipated, full of cold, has colic, or if the stomach is sour, breath bad, tongue coated, a teaspoonful of "California Fig Syrup" will never fail to open the bowels. In a few hours you can see for yourself how thoroughly it works the constipation poison, gorbile and waste right out, and you have a well, playful child again.

Millions of mothers keep "California Fig Syrup" handy. They know a teaspoonful to-day may save a sick child to-morrow. It never cramps or overacts. Ask your druggist for genuine "California Fig Syrup," which has directions for babies and children of all ages printed on bottle. Mother! You must say "California" or you may get an imitation fig syrup.

FIG. 46.—Associating occasion for buying
with trade-name.

cussed here, but how to lead consumers to think of and buy a commodity.

Another advertisement of Kellogg's, which could well be run every summer, shows a man eating his breakfast all alone with a box of Kellogg's Toasted Corn Flakes sitting on the dining-room table. The copy reads: "My wife's gone to the country—but there's Kellogg's in the pantry." Here a valuable association is formed between "my wife's gone to the country" and "Kelloggs." The wife planning for such a vacation instantly says, "That's it. He likes Kellogg's and can get his own breakfast without any trouble."

On a box containing a tube of Unguentine appears the trade name and underneath, the slogan, "The first thought in burns." That is good. But a combination more in harmony with the principle developed here would be, "When burned use Unguentine."

FULLER

Floor Preservative

□

Fuller Floor Preservative is recommended for use as a dressing on floors of concrete, wood, magnesite, and linoleum, and is therefore particularly useful in warehouses, factories, showrooms, offices and stores.

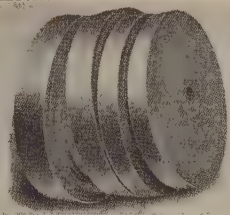
It toughens and preserves the flooring to which it is applied, making it proof against water, oil or grease, and floors treated with it will not stain or collect dust as in the case when mineral oil dressings are used, and can be washed easily and satisfactorily.

The use of Fuller Floor Preservative safeguards health. It prevents floors from powdering and therefore eliminates dust.

W. P. FULLER & CO.

301 Mission Street San Francisco, Calif.

FIG. 47.—Presents product and its talking-points. Written from seller's point of view, not buyer's.



"Star Brand"

Regular and Waterproof

LEATHER BELTING

Manufactured by

L. P. Degen Belting Co.

260 Mission St., San Francisco
328 E. Third St., Los Angeles

FIG. 48.—A display want-ad. No attempt to sell the goods.

Many advertisements today are similar to the first Congoleum advertisement in that they discuss the trade-marked commodity and its uses (see Fig. 26, for example). Most of these are constructed in this manner because it is most natural for the advertiser to start with his brand, and having started here to go on to

its many uses. Figure 47 is a fine illustration of just this. In some cases this procedure is appropriate because one way of establishing the adequacy of the solution is to give the various uses of the commodity. Another typical trade paper advertisement is the one in Fig. 48. Here there is no attempt at all to sell the goods.

Both of these advertisements should be called "display want ads." They are justified, if the seller is content with the business that will come from readers who already want the goods but do not know where to buy. Otherwise, the seller should play up occasion for using his commodity and how his product serves the purpose.

When a Commodity Has Many Uses, Many Different Occasions for Using Must Be Associated with the Commodity.—The teaching of modern psychology is that *associations are specific*. The association " $6 \times 8 = 48$ " is distinct from " $8 \times 6 = 48$," and a child may know one and not the other. Similarly, a pupil may answer correctly, "When was Magna Charta signed?" and not know the answer to, "What significant event occurred in 1215?"

From the data of Hotchkiss and Franken the following figures are gleaned:

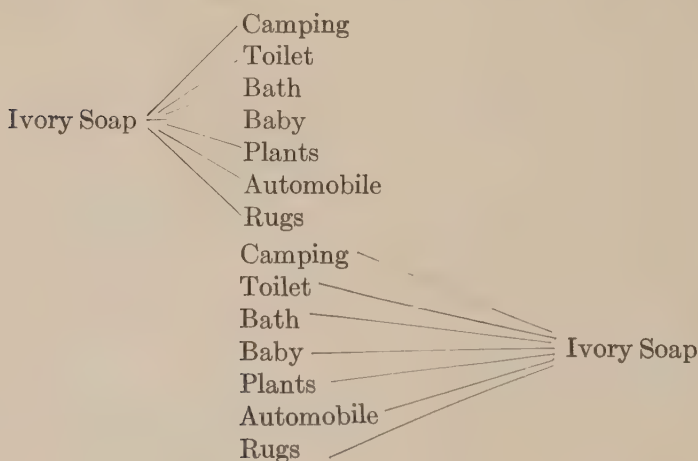
Commodity	Percentage of replies			
	Heinz	Campbell	Van Camp	Beech-nut
Baked beans.....	50	17	18	..
Soup.....	5	76	9	..
Spaghetti.....	21	2	4	..
Peanut butter.....	14	..	..	44

Heinz is called to mind in 50 per cent of the cases when baked beans are mentioned but in only 5 per cent when soup is mentioned. Similarly, Campbell occurs to 76 per cent of students when soup is mentioned, but to only 17 per cent when baked beans are mentioned. Clearly, knowledge of Heinz in connection with baked beans does not help to associate Heinz with other commodities.

What is the remedy? Each *occasion* for using a trade-named commodity must be associated with the name.

Ivory Soap could have been advertised as a wonderful soap useful for washing face and hands, for the bath, for the baby, for flannels, for the dishes, for the laundry, etc., and in time, women could have recited all these uses when Ivory was mentioned. Some value would result from this. But for years the advertising of Ivory Soap has been otherwise. Each advertisement has depicted an actual occasion for using soap and made clear that Ivory Soap is the best soap to use. So a woman has been seen watering her plants and the detailed instructions given of how plants can be cleaned with Ivory Soap. Or a man has been seen washing his car and the wife looking on. Instructions underneath tell how to do it with Ivory Soap. And next month the maid is seen cleaning a rug and instructions are given how to do it with Ivory soap. And so on almost without end.

The two methods can be diagrammatically illustrated as follows:



The former is the way the seller of Ivory Soap naturally thinks and so is most apt to be the way he expresses the subject. The latter is the way the buyer naturally thinks. It is the business of the seller to see to it that whenever any occasion in which soap may be used comes to mind Ivory will instantly be thought of.

The advertiser, conscious of twenty uses for his commodity, wants to present them all in each advertisement. It cannot be done any more than a whole year of geography can be taught in one lesson. The mind will take in only so much at a time and lessons in school are accommodated to what the child can absorb. So, in advertising, one lesson at a time must be the rule. If each is presented properly, in time the prospect will know them all.

If the reader is still skeptical of the point that each occasion for using a commodity must be separately associated with the trade name, let him look around and see how many people use a certain brand for one occasion and another for another occasion, when either one could be used in both cases about equally well.

This principle is equally applicable to department store advertising. Instead of always emphasizing bargains, some attention should be given to associating furniture with Department Store, linens with Department Store, etc., on down the line. For when a woman thinks, "new chairs for the dining-room," or a man thinks, "new cap," then is the time that "Department Store" should flash into mind. Many full-page department-store advertisements give the name of the store but once. In such advertisements there is a minimum of associating the various commodities with the store. Either the name, or else some characteristic trade-mark or symbol, should be frequently repeated so that these necessary associations will be drilled and drilled until always the customer thinks the store as soon as a prospective purchase comes to mind. Otherwise a man, for example, will buy his shirts in one store, his suits in another, his shoes in another. He trades at various places for no better reason in most cases than that something started him trading there and the habit (association) persists.

Cooperate with Companies Selling the Same Commodity when the Association To Be Formed is between Want and Commodity.—The value of cooperative advertising has been pointed out before. It is the logical thing to do whenever customers are not thinking from their wants to the commodity you sell, but rather to some other commodity.

In 1895, the production of copper was 380,000 pounds. At the close of the war it had risen to 2,500,000 pounds. This increased production

and expansion of the industry was made possible, of course, not only by increase in demand but in mining methods; discovery of new deposits, better working of low-grade ores and many other causes. Through better methods of production and increased production, the price also got to a point where it was reasonable to suppose that demand at a cheap price could be greatly stimulated where a higher price would have made this impossible.

A complete investigation of markets showed that the condition was indeed one which demanded immediate advertising. Copper had been driven from the field in many lines by active, aggressive, advertising competition. One of its competitors was aluminum. Twelve years ago aluminum was used for only about one-fourth of 1 per cent of the kitchen utensils then in use. Under improved process a better grade of aluminum was produced, but at first it could not be sold. Progressive sales and advertising campaigns put aluminum in a place where it is used today for more than 50 per cent of the kitchen utensils in the country, and the demand for it is steadily being increased. It was just this sort of aggressive work among many of the competitors of copper which led to the campaign now running.¹

In order to make people buy copper it is necessary to make them want all those articles that are made out of copper. A recent advertisement of the Copper and Brass Research Association shows a house owner looking at a worn-out leader pipe and the reader is made to feel the superiority of copper because it does not wear out.

An editorial in *Printers' Ink* of Jan. 5, 1922, has this to say on the subject:

The desire to gain some great end by advertising has brought groups of competitors together. This great end is the one of educating the public to be better customers. Cement manufacturers have learned that it is better to teach more people to use concrete construction and thus make a bigger market for cement, than to fight each other for the smaller trade that already exists. Under the ægis of advertising, paint manufacturers, tile-makers, orange-growers, raisin-driers, lumbermen, dairymen have joined the hands formerly lifted against one another. There is competition still, just as determined, and far more intelligent than in the old days, but it is the competition of golf, all within the limits of a gentleman's game. Each one plays his own ball, the best he knows how, and when his competitors' ball is lost in the rough, he cheerfully joins in the search for it.

One of the best examples of cooperative advertising is that of the Life Underwriters Association of Canada. In 1921, they

¹ DICKINSON, R., "Copper Starts to Advertise," *Printers' Ink*, May 11, 1922.

appropriated \$32,000 largely used for space in fifty-nine daily newspapers. In 1922, \$75,000 was appropriated for larger space, and for twelve instead of eight months. In Figs. 49 and 50 are shown two of the advertisements. The first is almost entirely illustration with only a few lines of copy and is so laid out that the reader must surely see it and get its message. The second reproduces the same cut, but in less space, and the copy expands the idea presented in the first advertisement. The whole campaign of sixteen advertisements was run in this way in sets of two, thus securing maximum publicity effect from the repetition of the same central figure in every advertisement. Each new idea was naturally associated with all that had gone before, but each was presented so simply and forcefully as to insure real effectiveness.

One of the difficulties with cooperative¹ advertising is that it is impossible to check up the results, for no particular company's product can be mentioned. The campaign of the Life Underwriters Association of Canada is felt to have been very successful because there has been a considerable change in the attitude of the daily press. This is reflected in the treatment of the advertisements in the matter of position, also in the editorial comment, and the number of life insurance articles appearing from time to time. Editors and reporters, just like other men, were taught to think life insurance. Insurance men attest that there has been a decrease in resistance to the salesmen when they called. Many prospects were found to have read the advertisements and to have been favorably impressed and many agents used the advertisements in opening their interview to good effect.

In concluding his address before the American Mining Congress at Milwaukee in 1923, W. R. Willis, Manager of the Copper and Brass Research Association, gives this evidence of the value of cooperation among competitors.

¹ The term "cooperative" advertising has reference to an association of competitors who are together advertising their product. The function which is performed is that of associating wants with the commodity. The term "educational" advertising has reference to educating the public with respect to a new commodity (not specifically a new trade name). The latter term really covers both the function of arousing a want and of associating the want with the commodity.

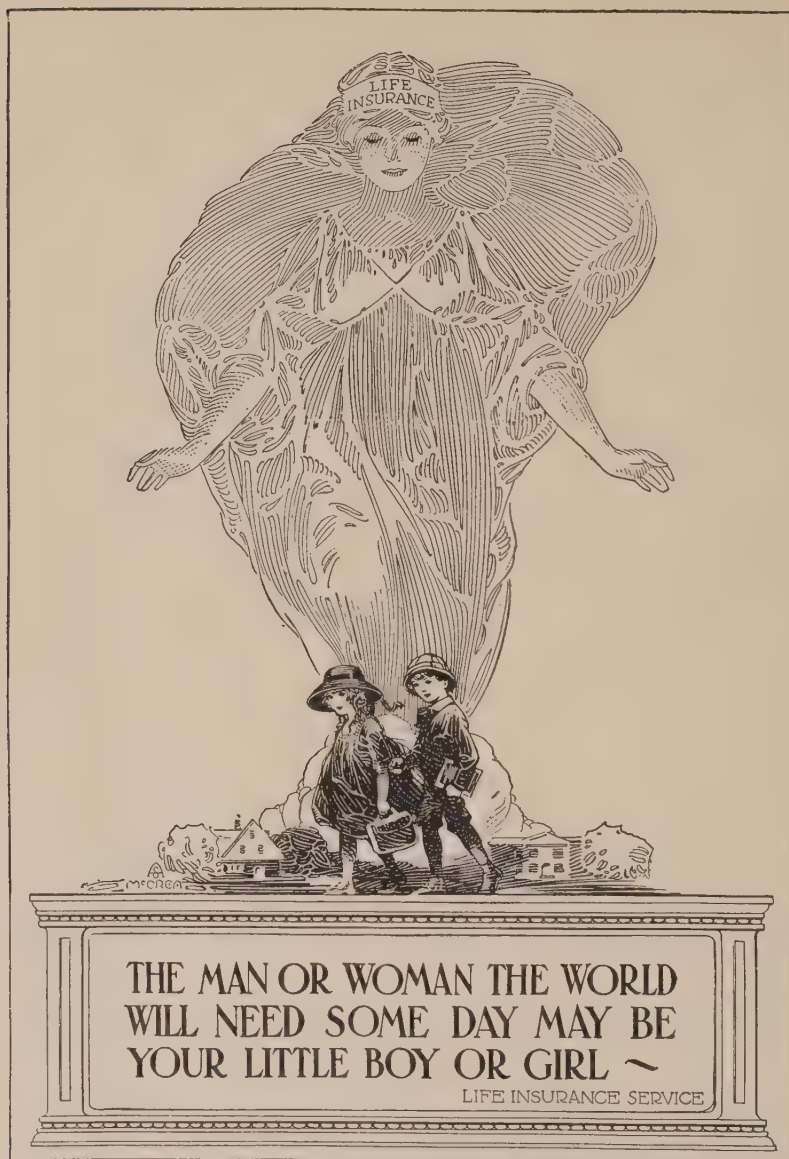


FIG. 49.—Example of cooperative advertising. Designed to get maximum publicity.



Your Little Boy and Girl ---and Mine

"My little child climbed up into my lap the other evening, and in characteristic fashion said, 'How much do you love me, Daddy?'"

"Why, I love you so much I'd never let anything harm you, as long as I live."

"In childlike innocence, back came the response, 'Well, I hope you live as long as I do, Daddy'"

"Like a dart it pierced through to my heart."

The future holds no cruel fate if the "guardian angel" of life insurance is placed over your children's lives today. Ere tomorrow it may be too late.

Any Life Insurance representative will be pleased to advise you how a father's and mother's love can be extended to their children, even though death overtake the parents, guaranteeing to them a chance in life

**THE MAN OR WOMAN THE WORLD WILL NEED
SOME DAY, MAY BE YOUR LITTLE BOY OR GIRL**

LIFE INSURANCE SERVICE

FIG. 50.—Example of cooperative advertising. Run several days after the advertisement in Fig. 49, expanding the "big-idea" in it.

The Copper and Brass Research Association is a voluntary, unincorporated organization. It now has forty-two member companies. At the end of any given year a member may withdraw, but I am proud to say that we have never had a single withdrawal from the Association ranks since 1919 when the original survey was started; in fact, we have gained eight new members during the past year. I think we have proved many things that were in doubt before and the most important of these is that the American people have potentialities, the existence of which were not even suspected before the war. If you have something to sell that has merit, and present your case intelligently and honestly, the people will listen to you. They have almost doubled their purchases of copper, brass, and bronze in two years, and I think the work of the Copper and Brass Research Association has been an important factor in this.

The theory underlying existing laws is that competing companies must compete. Supreme Court decisions are directed at lack of genuine competition, at the activities of a central bureau that more or less sets prices, divides up the market, and the like. So far there has been no decision which would prevent a group of companies in the same business advertising together. And there should not be any such decision because such advertising is designed to change buying habits and to lead people to substitute one commodity for another.¹

Cooperate with All Concerns That Help Associate Wants with Your Commodity.—Although the average woman will not buy a refrigerator at the same time she purchases a kitchen cabinet, or washing machine, or linoleum for the kitchen floor, and in that sense all these are competing commodities, nevertheless, if the advertisers of each of these products always displayed in the background the other three they would steadily raise the standard of what should be in a kitchen and so all would prosper. If a woman feels that all four are found in the average kitchen and she has none of them, she will struggle much harder to get one of them than if she thinks that only one is usually present.

Some advertisers recognize this and are so cooperating in an informal way. That more will do so, is confidently prophesied.

Occasion Must Be Associated with Both Commodity and Trade Name, Not Merely with Trade Name.—Whenever a person is confronted with an occasion for washing, is it desirable that he

¹ For certain legal phases of this subject see MONTAGUE, G. H., "How Trade Associations May Keep within the Law," *Printers' Ink*, Jan. 19, 1922.

think merely "Ivory," "Lux," or "Pears;" or is it necessary that he think "Ivory Soap," "Lux Soap" or "Pears Soap?" In other words, is the aim to associate occasion with trade name thus short-circuiting commodity, or is it to associate occasion with commodity with trade name?

So long as the manufacturer has a monopoly of the commodity he is safe, for no one can use the trade name without referring to his product. But as soon as others are able to manufacture the product, the question arises, "What are they to call it?"

Linoleum was manufactured for years free from competition. During that time the public was taught to call it linoleum. The term came to mean a kind of floor covering that looked like oilcloth but wasn't oilcloth. When the patents expired others commenced to manufacture the product. If they called the product linoleum it was seemingly unjust to the original company who had taught the public the use of the word in connection with their own product. On the other hand, they were manufacturing a product known to everyone as linoleum. To call it by another name would be deceiving the public into thinking the product was something else.

As Johnson¹ puts it: "Abstract justice is up a tree, and practical justice can only ask: 'If he isn't to call this stuff linoleum, what in the name of heaven is he to call it?'"

It is *use* that establishes meaning. If the public is permitted to use a trade name as the name of the commodity then sooner or later it will be impossible to prevent competitors from using it in a similar manner. "As Edmund Burke observed, it is difficult to 'draw up an indictment against a whole people,' and it is quite impossible to give effect to an injunction against them."

The producer can control the use of his trade name to a very large degree through advertising. If he teaches the public that his trade name indicates *origin* and never style or quality or fit or pattern or anything else, that the trade name always points to the producer as maker, then he is in a position to defend its use. In order to do this it is imperative that when a new product is announced it shall be given two names, one its designation as a

¹ JOHNSON, R. W., "The Legal Status of the Trade-Mark," *Printers' Ink*, Mar. 4, 1920. See also, COLE, R., "Cinching Ownership of a Brand Name with Advertising," *Printers' Ink*, Feb. 2, 1922.

commodity, the other, its trade name. In time anyone will be free to use the former but the latter will always remain the exclusive property of its owner.

This condition will only continue if the advertiser continues to emphasize both names. Because the human mind is prone to short circuit any process, customers are apt to drop out the commodity name and to think Kodak when they want to take a picture, to think B. V. D. when they want underwear, to think Yale when they want to lock the garage. As they come to think this way, sooner or later the owner of the trade name is going to lose his rights to the exclusive word.

It is because of this situation that the writer has insisted that both commodity and trade name must be kept distinct and that both elements must appear in the buying formula.

The ideal is then to lead customers to think the trade name whenever an occasion for buying arises, but at the same time never to let them forget that they are buying a particular commodity by that trade-marked name. So the Eastman Company tells us all the time, "If it isn't an Eastman, it isn't a Kodak."

Questions

1. What is the law of forward association?
2. What is meant by "associate occasion for buying with trade name?"
3. Select five advertisements that illustrate this principle; five that violate it.
4. Study current advertising and note how commodities that have a variety of uses are advertised.
5. What is meant by cooperative advertising? What are its advantages? Disadvantages? Why has it developed to such a great extent since the war?
6. Why cannot an advertiser afford to associate occasion with trade name, omitting the commodity entirely from consideration?

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CHAPTER XXI

THE RÔLE OF MEMORY

If the buying public were without memory, most advertising would be futile, a great deal of the efforts of salesmen would be lost, and there could be no such thing as goodwill.

What the Seller Desires That the Prospect Shall Remember.—Starch¹ tells us that “an advertisement, to be successful, must be seen, read, believed, remembered, and acted upon.” Then he goes on to test the memory value of an advertisement by returning to persons who have seen certain advertisements sometime before and “asking them to state which of the advertisements they remembered; and what they remembered about these advertisements.” In one case Starch tabulated the results so as “to show what was remembered of the illustrations, also which of the advertisements as a whole were remembered.” The data which he presents prove quite conclusively that these memory tests are not significant, that is, that advertisements which are well remembered are not necessarily effective advertisements. Unpublished studies of the writer all support this conclusion. In fact, many an advertisement which is well remembered is remembered because it has something bizarre or very unusual about it, and it is this often non-essential element which sticks in the prospect’s mind.

It would seem obvious that the seller has no reason for wishing the buyer to remember his advertisement, as such, any more than that he remember a sales talk, as such. In fact, many advertisers go so far as to insist that only after a reader has forgotten that his information was derived from an advertisement is the full effect of the advertisement experienced. It is the effect produced by the advertisement upon the prospect’s way of thinking which the seller wishes retained.

¹ STARCH, D., “Principles of Advertising,” chaps. XIV, XV, 1923.

In other words, *the seller desires that all the elements in the buying formula will function whenever the buyer has an occasion for using the seller's goods.*

In the preceding chapters, the principal interest has been in the problem of how to develop a prospect into a customer, and it also has been seen that it is necessary to form within his mind a definite habit of buying one's goods. What the writer wishes to emphasize here is that *the problem of getting a prospect to remember is exactly the same problem that has been discussed throughout the preceding chapters.* People remember only what they have learned. To guarantee memory means that the individual must learn efficiently and thoroughly. In Chaps. VI and XX, particularly, the point has been stressed that each occasion in everyday life where the commodity can be used must be associated with the trade name. If this is done, and sufficiently drilled upon, the individual will remember the trade name when the occasion is encountered. This is the key to efficient memory in everyday life. For example, if a man wishes to remember upon entering his office in the morning to tell his stenographer to write a certain letter, he can almost assure his action by going through the following procedure: Picture himself entering the office and saying "Good morning" to the stenographer. Recall to mind how she looks and the general surroundings, and then say to himself, "as I say 'Good morning,' I will tell her about the letter." When this has been done, the occasion of meeting the stenographer is mentally associated with sending the letter. When the occasion is actually encountered, the associated ideas flash into mind.

The same principle applies in selling. The occasion for buying must be associated with the trade name.

Contrast this procedure with what is being done in advertising auto tires, for example. One tire company has been associated with billboards announcing the next town. One reads the information, but does not remember the tire because he did not even read about it. Another company displays a sleepy kid with the caption, "Time to Retire." This is a clever play on words, but at the present writing, I cannot recall the tire which is advertised. I remember the pun, but not the product. The Goodyear advertisement calls attention to "skidding—terrible

feeling, isn't it?" and tells us that, "You don't get that feeling when you ride on Goodyear Tires. That All-Weather Tread grips tight. It hangs on. It holds fast. You get added safety, and no added cost." Associating Goodyear with non-skid is well worth while. But not much more than the other advertisements does it touch the most essential factor in insuring recall of the trade name—that is, the association of the occasion of buying a new tire with the trade name. When a man has a blow-out, when he discovers a bad cut in the casing, when the tread is all gone, when the garage man says, "I can fix it, but frankly it isn't worth while—it might go 100 miles, and it might give way before you get home";—when such an incident happens, then it is that the advertiser wants his trade name to be recalled.

To repeat: The problem of getting a prospect to remember is exactly the same problem as that of forming a habit of buying. Memory is dependent upon the existence of definite associations.

The chief emphasis must be put upon establishing those associations which are outlined in the buying formula. Certain secondary considerations may be taken into account which affect somewhat the extent to which trade names and packages are remembered.

Two Kinds of Memory.—Mr. Smith is introduced to Mr. Jones. A year later, Smith meets Jones and *recognizes* him. That is, he feels that he has seen him before somewhere, but Smith does not *recall* Jones' name. Here are exemplified two kinds of memory: *recognition* and *recall*.

When an object or person is seen again, it may be recognized or not. If recognized, there is experienced a certain feeling of familiarity. Human beings have an amazing facility for recognizing what they have previously seen. It is in terms of this type of memory that a bank teller knows a certain man has been at the window before, that his signature has been seen before, that it is the same signature that was last seen on his check.

A different situation is encountered in recall memory. When Mr. Jones is met again his name must be recalled. That name is not displayed on him. Whether or not it will be brought into Smith's consciousness depends upon how well his appearance was associated with his name at the time he met Smith, and how long a period of time has elapsed.

When a prospect goes into a store to buy a can of beans, the trade name he will ask for will come to mind or not, depending upon recall memory. If he cannot recall the name, he will probably ask, "What kind of beans have you got?" Then, when he hears the name he desires, he recognizes it and says, "That's what I want." Or it may be he will look at the various cans, and when he sees the one he wants, say, "That's the one," pointing to it.

Trade names must be recalled, or they cannot be announced to the merchant.

Trade names, trade-marks, and packages may be recognized when the trade name cannot be recalled.

How to Facilitate Recognition of Trade-mark and Package.—Recognition is dependent primarily upon having the same combination of elements present upon a second occasion of meeting that were present the first time. Frequently men, at least, fail to recognize a woman because she has on a different hat or dress from the one she wore the first time. The new element gives a new combination.

Trade-marks and packages should accordingly be displayed in advertising as they will be seen in actual use. This means that no artistic decoration should be repeatedly used to set them off in advertising, for when the package is seen without the background the trade-mark may not be recognized. Similarly, color can be used to advantage in advertising in order to present the trade-mark and package as they actually appear in use. But if colors are used, they should be the correct colors. Color is, however, not essential, although helpful.

The factors that affect recognition, arranged in order of importance, are: the objects, the spacial relations and forms of the objects, color, and size. A number of slight changes in the details can be made without particularly affecting recognition. But just as soon as the details are rearranged so that the total combination is altered, recognition is interfered with. When a trade-mark was exhibited recently, nearly everyone said, "It looks like the Beech-nut trade-mark." Yet when the two trade-marks were compared, there were no two elements alike. The two combinations were similar and so the one was confused with the other.

It is quite obvious that an easily recognized trade-mark or package must be *distinctive*, that is, strikingly different from those of competitors. How to determine whether consumers can distinguish it from that of competitors is outlined below.

An easily recognized trade-mark is seldom complicated; it usually is *simple*. Changing many elements in a complicated design may affect recognition very little. Because this is true, competitors may adopt trade-marks that are different in many details from their own complicated trade-mark, and yet the total effects will be sufficiently alike to cause much confusion among the buying public.

Designs that are quite complicated as far as number of lines are concerned may be, psychologically speaking, quite simple if they are well known and especially if they have a name. A house, boat, or railroad train is simpler than an unfamiliar design of a very few lines. The "simplest" objects are those which everyone learns to know early in life, as cat, dog, black-board, doll, etc. The Star automobile is probably better known today than nine-tenths of autos that have been in existence ten years. It is so well known largely because of the simplicity of the trade-mark and the fact that trade-mark and trade name are pronounced alike. The Keystone Lumber Company of Pittsburgh has as a trade-mark, an elephant galloping down the road with a big beam held between his tusks and trunk. Once seen, the trade-mark is always recognized again. But the name of the company is not necessarily recalled because there is no natural association between an elephant and a keystone. If a mammoth were substituted for the elephant and the company name were the Mammoth Lumber Company, an ideal combination would exist.

The Log Cabin maple syrup can is an excellent example of how trade-mark and package can be presented in such a way as to *utilize already existing association*. The can suggests the name and the name suggests the container.

Clearly, there is a limit to such combinations. Once customers become used to getting pickles in a glass bottle or tuna fish in flat cans, it is difficult, sometimes impossible, to sell them in an entirely new type of container, even though it may have distinctive features well associated with the name and the commodity.

Because man is always interested in man, it is often advantageous to present the trade-mark in connection with some personality, *i.e.*, to use a *mascot*. So there are the Gold Dust Twins, the Old Dutch Cleanser, Aunt Jemima, and many others. When these personalities are made an integral part of the trade-mark or name and appear on the package, the advertiser makes it particularly easy for the customer to remember them and to recognize the package. When they are presented as an additional element in the advertising, as was Sunny Jim years ago in connection with the breakfast food Force, they may increase interest in the advertising, but not help recognition of the package, nor recall of the name.

Expense must usually be taken into account. A package may be distinctive, but if it is too expensive it may spell failure. Recently many manufacturers have reported considerable saving through slight changes in the shape of their containers. These changes have facilitated manufacture, filling, and shipping. For example, shifting three-quarters of an inch from the depth to the width of one carton without decreasing the cubic contents, resulted in a decrease of 16 per cent in the cost of stock and a decrease of 4 per cent in the cost of cutting and printing. The new shape lent itself better to the use of an automatic filling machine. More advertising surface and greater strength were secured in addition.

Trade-marks and packages must be *attractive* as well as easily recognized. If people do not like their looks, they tend not to buy. *Appropriateness* is an element here. A quite attractive trade-mark for feathers might and probably would be unattractive for machinery, just because it was not appropriate. The Beech-nut mark is very appropriate for foods. But it is not so appropriate for lingerie, cigarettes, or vacuum cleaners. When a design is inappropriate, it is most likely to be inartistic and, psychologically speaking, it is quite likely to be disliked.

After so much has been said about selecting a trade-name that is *easy to pronounce*, it would seem unnecessary to add more. But every year new names appear which violate this principle. A name that the reader cannot pronounce is much harder for him to remember. Moreover, few like to attempt to use a name if they feel others will laugh at their pronunciation. In adver-

tising Ghirardelli's chocolate on the Pacific coast, much of the space has to be devoted to instructing people how to pronounce the name—a real handicap. The owner of this business is quoted as having declared the “h” in his name has cost him \$1,000,000.

But a hard name to pronounce, if presented so that it is easy to say, may make a very easily remembered name, as in the case of Pro-phy-lac-tic Tooth Brush. W. H. Childs of the Bon Ami Company is quoted as saying that he would give a good deal of money if only the name could be changed without losing the time, money, and effort which has been spent in establishing it. The masses do not know French and so do not appreciate its meaning, and hence its appropriateness, and many still do not know how to pronounce it.

A trade name, to be easily recalled and recognized, should then be associated, if possible, with the commodity, easily pronounced, and pleasing. This means usually that it will be simple, not complicated. Because of difficulties connected with registration, personal and geographical names should not be used. High-sounding words, such as “superior,” “superb,” “standard,” “AI,” “XXXX,” and the like, should be avoided. Too much arrogance is distasteful, and these terms are already over-used anyway.

Students interested in the legal restrictions affecting trademarks should consult the references given at the close of this chapter.

How to Facilitate Recall of the Trade Name.—It is desirable not only that a trade name be recognized, but that it be recalled. For if a buyer cannot recall the name of the brand he wants, he fumbles around, loses time, and may be sold another brand by the interested dealer.

How, then, may recall of the trade-name be facilitated?

First, Determine Definitely Just What the Prospect is to Recall and When.—As pointed out above, the seller desires the buyers to recall his trade name whenever he has an occasion for buying—also, to recall reasons for buying and to feel pleasantly inclined toward the commodity. But each seller must determine just what the details are that are to be recalled and when.

From a recent Fuller Brush advertisement, it is evident that this advertiser knew exactly what he wanted to be remembered.

A young man is depicted with his hand so held as to call attention to the Fuller button in the lapel of his coat. The button is prominently displayed at the side. The next time a Fuller Brush representative introduces himself at the door, the reader will tend to look for the button, having done so while looking at the young man in the advertisement and having been instructed that it is a mark of identification; and upon seeing the button, the reader will be just a little more ready to listen—for the button identifies the young man and to some extent lifts him out of the class of the casual bell-ringer.

For further discussion on this point, refer back to Chap. XX to the section, Associate Occasion for Buying with Trade Name.

Second, Make Every Effort to Fixate the Impression.—Aimless reading of advertising has some effect, but not very much. Myers,¹ having given the impression he was going to make a test in speed and accuracy of spelling, called out six words. After they were written down, he asked his audience of adults to turn their papers over and then to write the words in the order they had been given. Only 25 per cent could recall all six words, and only 5 per cent could give the six words in their proper order. But if Myers had told these people just what he wanted, most of them would have gotten the desired result. Two hundred persons were asked to draw a representation of a watch face with Roman numbers. All but twenty-one put in IV instead of IIII and all but eight put in the "VI." Looking at a watch thousands of times to tell the time does not equip a person with the ability to recall the details of that watch face. A reader must be induced to read an advertisement with the intention of remembering, if he is to remember much.

Undoubtedly, the one most effective means of inducing readers to intend to remember is by arousing a want and showing how it can be satisfied by way of the trade-marked commodity. A man seldom forgets what he really wants to do. Enough has been said, however, on this point already.

Getting readers to do something is another way to fixate the impression. So filling out a coupon and reading the follow-up material are helps here; just as getting a prospect to calculate,

¹ MYERS, G. C., "A Study in Incidental Memory," 1913.

himself, the profits to be obtained from the article for sale helps fixate the point in his mind.

Third, Drill the Prospect.—Before any habit is acquired, it must be practiced; before any date in history is learned, it must be repeated several times. So in advertising.

But drill need never be monotonous. There are thousands of ways of telling any story, of associating an occasion with a trade name. Each time the presentation may be different, but the same point must be hammered home.

And drill may be accomplished through efforts of salesmen, advertising, use of booklets, by mail follow-up, and by all sorts of devices.

The chief reason why there is not so much drill—repetition—as is really necessary is that the seller, not the buyer, gets tired of it. An advertiser lives with his copy and sees it for weeks before it appears in print. The reader may see it only once or twice. The salesman tells his story to many prospects, but each of them listens only once.

Repetition—unending repetition—is essential for three reasons: First, it is the only way to establish a habit. Second, as time goes on, the effect of learning dies out—a man must be reminded lest he forget—and third, the efforts of competitors all interfere with the habits a man is attempting to form. If a child says “ $6 \times 7 = 43$,” it will take a considerable number of repetitions of “ $6 \times 7 = 42$ ” before the effect of this one incorrect repetition is eliminated. So, if a woman thinks of buying Lux instead of Ivory, the mere act of doing so tends to undermine the “soap-Ivory” way of thinking. This interfering effect is most pronounced when a new habit is being formed. It is because of this factor that it is so expensive to launch a new product when several old competing ones are well established.

All this can be summarized in the words of E. L. Thorndike, as follows:

A human being will, other things being equal, make to any situation that response which has gone with that situation most frequently, and with the most resulting satisfaction.

This law leads to five obvious principles for controlling a person's mental connection:

1. Know what his situation is.
2. Know what response you wish to get from him.

3. Know what satisfies or annoys him.
4. Make the connection; do not expect the response to come as a miracle.
5. Other things being equal, make no connections which you will later have to unmake.

Selection of Trade-marks and Package Designs.—As trade-marks and packages are to be recognized, but practically never recalled, they should be selected from the standpoint of being easily recognized. A method for doing this is as follows: Show the trade-mark together with, say, nineteen other trade-marks, to people who are *bona fide* prospects for the product. Then supply these people with slips of paper upon which appear one at a time the twenty trade-marks they have seen mixed in with twenty trade-marks not previously shown. Instruct them to sort the slips into three piles—the first pile for the trade-marks they are absolutely certain, they would swear, they have seen before; the second pile for those they are reasonably but not absolutely certain of; and the third pile for all the rest. This third pile will contain those the individuals are certain were not seen and those that they do not know about. Score the trade-marks which are placed in the first pile with a “1,” those in the second pile with a “ $\frac{1}{2}$,” and those in the third pile with a “0.” Total up the scores. The higher the total, the better the score, of course.

In running such a recognition test, the twenty trade-marks that are shown can all be new trade-marks under consideration. But it is well to include among the twenty some “ringers,” that is, some that are in use and are known to be good ones, also some that are known to be poor ones. The scores that these “ringers” receive throw light on what the other scores mean.

Ease of recognition is not the only factor to be considered. The appropriateness or pleasingness of the trade-mark is quite important. To test this out, first inform your people what the commodity is that is to be sold. Then have them sort your twenty trade-marks into three groups: first, those they like very much; second, those that “are all right but nothing wonderful”; and, third, those they don’t like. Score again with “1,” “ $\frac{1}{2}$,” and “0” as before.

An average of the scores in the two tests gives a final rating on the value of the trade-marks. Package designs can be tested in the same way.

The greatest care must be taken in such tests that the people to be tested do not discover what trade-marks you are interested in. If they do, the results will probably be worthless, as most people are very accommodating and will vote as they think you want them to. The writer knows of one case where the results were most misleading because this factor of suggestibility was not safeguarded.

The above procedure has nothing to do, of course, with the problem of selecting a trade-mark that can be registered at Washington or in foreign countries. Nor does it safeguard the selection against feelings of unpleasantness that may arise on the part of people in some foreign country. Gum means rubber in England; and Wrigley has had to change his name to "chewing sweets" in order to please the Englishman.

These tests will aid materially in selecting a good trade-mark. When business men are ready for still better procedures they will be developed. At the present time, far too little thought is given to the subject. The writer found in one investigation that the trade-mark of a medium-priced commodity meant "cheap" to three prospects out of four, and meant "inferior quality" to almost every dealer. This attitude on the part of the dealer was traceable to his experience with another company whose name was somewhat similar. No wonder a half million spent in advertising the new product failed to put it on the market. Most of that loss is attributable to the fact that the mark was selected in a board of director's meeting after practically no consideration of the matter.

Selection of Trade Names.—A trade name is to be recalled; only when it cannot be recalled is it to be recognized. In selecting a trade name, some consideration can be given to ease of recognition as has been considered in the preceding section in connection with trade-marks. But the chief consideration must be given to the question: When a prospect has an occasion for buying, will he easily recall the trade name? This means that the commodity should suggest the trade name, if possible; that the name should be pleasing and appropriate and one that can be easily pronounced.

The first step in selecting a trade-name is to obtain a long list of possible names. Contests have frequently been employed

in this connection. They have a good advertising value, but frequently bring in so many thousands of names that it requires a great deal of time and worry to handle them. The chances are that the suggestions from 100 to 1,000 persons will be ample.

A number of experts should each independently select from this first list about twenty of the best names. Those names that are most often selected by the experts should then be further considered, and the remainder dropped. But any name that was suggested by a considerable number of the original 100 to 1,000 people should be included unless it is obviously poor. In this first weeding-out process all names should be dropped that clearly could not be registered for one reason or another. There should remain at this point from twenty to fifty names. Here again the use of "ringers," as described above, is advisable.

Relevancy and Pleasingness.—Describe the commodity to be sold. Then instruct the people to be tested, who should be *bona fide* prospects, that they are to select that trade name they *would most prefer to buy* from the list of twenty to fifty names. Present the names, each on a separate slip of paper. After they have selected the one they most prefer, have them sort the remainder into three piles: the first pile to contain the names they like and would buy; the second pile to contain the names they care nothing about—are indifferent to; and the third pile to contain the names they dislike and feel they would not want to buy at all. Score the best name "2," the names in the first pile "1," the names in the second pile "0," and the names in the third pile "−1." Add up the scores for each name from all the people tested. The higher the total, the better is the rating.

In this test it is important that the people who are performing the test shall keep in mind the commodity to be sold. Otherwise they may rate the names on the basis of the pleasingness of the names alone. Consequently, remind them frequently that they are to sort the names on the basis of whether they would buy the commodity or not.

Ease of Pronunciation.—Have another group of *bona fide* prospects sort the names into three piles according as they are very easy to pronounce, occasion no trouble or are hard to pronounce. Score the names in each pile with "1," " $\frac{1}{2}$," and "0," respectively.

Ease of Recall and Recognition Memory.—Show the names one at a time and then ask the person to write down all the names he can recall. When that is done give him the names now mixed in with an equal number of new names and instruct him to pick out those he had been shown. Score the recall test by assigning "1" to each name correctly recalled, " $\frac{1}{2}$ " to each name approximately correctly recalled and "0" to all the rest. Conduct and score the recognition test as described in connection with the testing of trade-marks and packages. (As the first and last five names in a list are more likely to be remembered than the remainder, the names should be shuffled each time before showing them to a person to be tested.)

The Final Rating.—Combine the total scores in each test for each name. The higher the total the better the final rating. As the relevancy test is the most significant, it can be weighted double if desired.

Occasionally, a name that is scored very low because of difficulty in pronouncing it is scored very high in the recognition test and fairly high in the recall test, although here such a name is likely to be misspelled. In such a case, it is worth while to consider the possibility of presenting the name in such a way as to obviate the difficulty of pronunciation. If this difficulty can be eliminated, as has been done with Pro-phy-lac-tic, an excellent name may be developed.

People can be secured for such tests by an energetic young man or woman with pleasing personality with surprisingly little difficulty. If the commodity is a soap, for example, customers coming into a drug store can be inveigled into doing the required stunt. The chief difficulty is to get rid of them after the test is over. They tend to stand around with "insatiable curiosity."

Testing the Extent by Which One Trade-mark Infringes upon Another.—A very important problem is whether a new trade-mark infringes upon an old one. Barber,¹ Secretary of the United States Trade-mark Association, described in 1911 the method by which such decisions are made, in these words:

Usually in our helplessness, we bring the trade-marks, labels, or packages into the court, show them to the judge, and according as we are on one side

¹ BARBER, A. W., "The Psychology of Trade-marks," *Bulletin of the United States Trade-mark Association*, vol. VII, pp. 152-165, 1911.

of the case or the other, point out their likenesses or analyze their differences. Then the judge, in the exercise of his judicial common sense, settles the rights of the parties as they look to him.

What we get from the court in a case thus presented is never the determination of a fact upon conflicting evidence, but the mere opinion upon the probabilities of a future event, the deception of a purchaser.

And Rogers¹ says among other things the following on the subject:

When the court thinks the exhibits sufficiently alike that a judicially ideal, unwary purchaser ought reasonably to be deceived and one steps forward and testifies that it has happened, it is hailed as a confirmation of the court's judgment and much is made of the testimony, but if in such a case no testimony of actual deception is adduced the "unwary purchaser" is pressed again into service on the pretext that he is in the course of his imaginary purchasing to be imposed upon by the imitation.

When a case is brought before a judge he must decide either that the two trade-marks do infringe or that they do not. The assumption develops from such a situation that there is a boundary line at which infringement begins. But the fact is otherwise. All days in the year cannot be classified as actually hot or cold. They vary from one extreme to the other. And the same is true with respect to the extent one trade-mark infringes upon another. The amount of infringement may vary from 0 to 100 per cent.

There is real need for a method of measuring the amount of infringement. Before the days of a thermometer, weather was characterized as hot or warm or cold. Today in all scientific procedure the exact degree of temperature is stated. Some day the amount of infringement will be measured and decisions will be made on the basis of facts and not upon such guesswork as is indicated by Barker and Rogers.

Paynter² has made a valuable start in this direction. Using certain methods of testing recognition memory, he determined the extent to which one trade-mark was confused with another. In the following table are given a few examples of his results.

¹ ROGERS, E. S., "The Unwary Purchaser: A Study in the Psychology of Trade-mark Infringement," *Michigan Law Review*, vol. VIII, pp. 613-622, 1910.

² PAYNTER, R. H., JR., "A Psychological Study of Trade-mark Infringement," 1920.

The first column indicates whether the court decided the trademarks in column three were infringements (I) or non-infringements (N) of those in column two. As far as the records show the decisions were made strictly on the basis of infringement or non-infringement, no other facts being considered. The fourth column indicates the percentage of people who were confused and the fifth column gives a numerical expression of the extent of the confusion. The scale used in the fifth column runs from 0 to 10—0 equaling no confusion at all, and 10 equaling absolute identity between the two items.

TABLE II.—THE PER CENT OF INDIVIDUALS CONFUSED, AND THE GRADE OF CONFUSION, IN NINE COURT DECISIONS AS TO INFRINGEMENT

Decision	Trade-marks		Per cent confused	Grade of confusion
	Original	Imitative		
N	Sozodont	Kalodont	28	3.6
I	Nox-all	Nox-X-Ell	28	4.9
I	Club	Chancellor Club	35	2.7
N	Bestyette	Veribest	35	4.1
N	Mother's	Grandma's	38	3.2
I	Au-to-do	Autola	40	4.3
N	Pextenzyme	Pinozyme	43	5.2
I	Green River	Green Ribbon	50	5.7
I	Ceresota	Cressota	63	7.9

The two sets of data in the fourth and fifth columns were obtained by radically different methods. They agree surprisingly well, (correlation about 0.70). But neither of them agrees with the court decisions. Paynter concludes that "some of the imitations declared to be legal by the courts actually confused more individuals in the recognition experiment than some imitations declared illegal, and *vice versa*."

Here is an interesting and worth-while study for someone to pursue further in order that standards for determining infringements may be established.

Questions

1. What is it that the seller wants the prospect to remember?
2. Differentiate between the two kinds of memory.
3. What factors should be taken into account in constructing a trade name; a trade-mark?
4. How may a trade-mark be selected; a trade name?
5. Upon what basis does a judge decide whether one trade name infringes upon another? Why is such a procedure, scientifically speaking, inaccurate?

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See also references at close of chap. XV.

CHAPTER XXII

THEORIES OF SELLING

There are, undoubtedly, many theories more or less active in the minds of sellers as to how to influence others to buy. But a perusal of the literature on the subject leads to the conclusion that there are only three general theories which are definitely formulated.

The first theory is expressed by the five words: "*attention*," "*interest*," "*desire*," "*action*," "*satisfaction*." There is implied in this theory that the prospect must successively experience the *conscious states* of attention, interest, desire, action, and satisfaction. And the emphasis is put upon establishing these states of consciousness.

The second theory comes to the selling world from behavioristic psychology. All behavior according to this view can be expressed by the formula: "*Situation-response*." The word "*situation*" comprises factors external to the individual and also factors within him. Thus, the remark, "Let's have a smoke," would be an external factor and the presence or absence of a desire to smoke would be an internal factor leading to the response of smoking or not.

The expression "*Appeals-response*" has appeared frequently in the advertising world as a substitute for "*Situation-response*." When either of these formulas is employed undue emphasis always seems to be laid upon the external factors; and the emphasis has accordingly been put upon determining which appeals will stimulate.

The third theory views man as a dynamic being. Whether man buys or not depends very largely upon the internal factors within him, summed up in the word "*wants*." Unless he wants he will remain unaware of, or at least uninterested in, what the seller has to present.

Psychologists may not experience any difficulty in keeping

both external and internal factors in mind when they use the expression "situation-response." But the layman without a broad grasp of the subject must apparently overlook one or the other; he cannot keep both before him. As he naturally is interested himself in what he is presenting, namely appeals to the prospect, it seems best to emphasize the internal factors in any formulation that is given to him as a guide in his thinking.

The words: "*want*," "*solution*," "*action*," "*satisfaction*," express this third theory of selling. The emphasis is put upon the wants of the prospect and the seller's function is to guide the thinking of the prospect to the desired end of buying.

Consideration of each of these theories in more detail will help to make the above points clear.

SELLING EXPLAINED IN TERMS OF MENTAL STATES

E. St. Elmo Lewis formulated the slogan, "Attract attention, maintain interest, create desire," in 1898. Later he added the fourth term "get action." These four words represent four states of consciousness which must pass through the mind of the prospect before he will buy. In other words, if the prospect experiences attention, interest, desire, he will be more likely to act; and, consequently, an advertisement or sales talk must be planned to arouse these feelings in him.

Sheldon¹ is apparently responsible for adding the fifth term, "secure satisfaction." In his writings of 1905 and 1910 the term does not occur. In his correspondence course of 1911 he lists the "four states that occur in the mind of the customer in every sale," and then adds, "while these four mental states are sufficient for a sale, two more must be added for the purpose of business-building, namely, confidence and satisfaction. In his "Art of Selling" published the same year, he lists satisfaction with the other four as "the successive steps in the process of a selling transaction."

This slogan of Lewis and Sheldon has had a very profound effect upon the selling world. At the time it appeared there was no clear and definite formulation of what was implied in selling. Books on selling and advertising were hardly more than a jumbled

¹ SHELDON, A. F., "The Science of Business Building," 1905 and 1910; "Salesmanship," 1911; "The Art of Selling," 1911.

collection of opinions on a great variety of topics. The formula has caused order to come out of chaos.

The majority of articles and books written since 1907 have endorsed the slogan in one form or another. And many speeches before advertising men and salesmen clearly show its influence. The writer would estimate that 90 per cent of all those engaged in these fields are consciously or unconsciously influenced by this point of view.

Several writers have more or less stressed mental states without subscribing to the above five-step formula. Scott¹ writing in 1903 and 1908 believed that all the mental activities of man were involved in the process of buying, and discussed advertising under the chapter headings of: Attention; Association of Ideas; Suggestion; Fusion; Perception; Apperception; Illusion; Imagery; Memory; Feeling; Instinct; Will; Habit; and the like. But Scott made no attempt to formulate a simple expression of the selling process. The same is true of another psychologist, Adams,² who wrote in 1916. Most of the material in his book appears under the chapter headings of Sensation, Attention, Association, Fusion, Memory, Appearance (Feeling), and Action. Adams states in his preface that "the behavioristic standpoint has been adhered to throughout," and any behaviorist could interpret his material from that standpoint. But the ordinary reader gets the point of view from his work, as well as from that of Scott, that mental states must be emphasized in selling. Eastman³ organizes his material in Part I, Making the Sale, under the following heads: (1) Pre-approach (*a*) Investigation, and (*b*) Preparation; (2) Approach and Securing Attention; (3) Solicitation; (4) Objections; and (5) Closing. Parts II and III are then devoted to the processes of Thinking, Feeling, and Action. Hess⁴ discusses a formula in his 1915 work but devotes little space to it. Instead he presents chapters after the order of the above on Sense Experience; Instincts; Imagination; Memory;

¹ SCOTT, W. D., "Theory of Advertising," 1903; "Psychology of Advertising," 1908.

² ADAMS, H. F., "Advertising and Its Mental Laws," 1916.

³ EASTMAN, G. R., "Psychology of Salesmanship," 1916.

⁴ HESS, H. W., "Productive Advertising," 1915; "Creative Salesmanship," 1923.

Attention; Desire; Habit and Inhibition; and Getting the Will of the Crowd. In his 1923 work there is no reference to the formula nor to the above psychological topics. Most of the book is devoted to the personality of the salesman and the buyer.

Substitution of "Conviction" for "Desire."—Many writers have emphasized that an intellectual rather than emotional state of mind is the key to action and have substituted words like "conviction," "confidence," or "judgment," for "desire" in the slogan of Lewis and Sheldon. Thus The Little Schoolmaster¹ wrote in 1910;

Most of those who have attempted to outline the proper arrangement of a complete advertisement—that is, an advertisement that embodies all the functions—seem to follow about this order: attract attention, develop interest, produce conviction, induce action.

Hall,² 1915, substitutes "confidence" and "conviction" for "desire." In 1924 when addressing sales managers instead of advertising men he presents: get attention, develop interest, demonstrate, clear up details and doubts, induce action. Osborn³ uses the word "judgment" for that of "desire," giving the four-word slogan: attention, interest, judgment, action.

Kitson⁴ keeps the word "desire" but inserts between it and "action" the word "confidence." His entire book is based directly on this six-word slogan. Ramsay⁵ adds "caution" in a similar way giving the formula: "attention, interest, desire, caution, action." But unlike Kitson, he almost completely ignores it throughout his book.

"Satisfaction" Is Not Always Included in the Formula.—It is not surprising that in the years immediately following Sheldon's addition of the word "satisfaction" to Lewis' formula, the word "satisfaction" should be omitted, because at that time the objective of selling was still viewed by nearly all as merely to secure a sale. But as the years have rolled by, more and more sellers have come to see that the objective of selling is not a single sale

¹ *Printers' Ink*, p. 74, Dec. 1, 1910.

² HALL, S. R., "Writing an Advertisement," 1915; "The Advertising Handbook," 1921; "Handbook of Sales Management," 1924.

³ OSBORN, A. F., "A Short Course in Advertising," 1922.

⁴ KITSON, W. D., "The Mind of the Buyer," 1921.

⁵ RAMSAY, R. E., "Effective Direct Advertising," 1921.

but a customer. The word "satisfaction" should, consequently, be included in any formula in order to emphasize this new objective. But many authorities have not seen this point, apparently.

The George Batten Agency is credited with the slogan: "To be seen, read, and believed." Hall in 1915 added "to be remembered" and gives this four-term slogan again in his handbook in 1921. Starch¹ makes considerable use of the slogan in this form, expanded by him to: "Must be seen, read, believed, remembered, acted upon."

Although Nystrom,² Whitehead,³ Sloan and Mooney,⁴ Blanchard,⁵ Ruxton⁶ and Herrold⁷ recognize the value of goodwill, they do not include the word "satisfaction" in their formulas and present only the four-word theory—attention, interest, desire, and action. Hess,⁸ 1915, applies the formula to only those customers who have no desire for the goods. He adds the word "possession" after "action," but not the word "satisfaction."

An interesting deviation from the formula appears in "*Knack of Selling*."⁹ The salesman is told: "(1) to gain attention; (2) to hold interest; (3) to keep command over the trend of the interview; and (4) to keep the canvass going that makes the prospect want your goods, arouses the motive that makes him willing to buy them, and closes the order."

Expansion of the Formula.—The slogan is carried to its fullest extent in "The Selling Process" by Hawkins,¹⁰ sales manager of the General Motors. A brief outline of the book follows:

1. Preparatory steps:
 - a. Preparation (Chap. IV).
 - b. Prospecting (Chap. V).
 - c. Approach and audience (Chap. VI).

¹ STARCH, D., "Principles of Advertising," 1923.

² NYSTROM, P. H., "Retail Selling and Store Management," 1915.

³ WHITEHEAD, H., "Principles of Salesmanship," 1917.

⁴ SLOAN, C. A., and MOONEY, J. D., "Advertising the Technical Product," 1920.

⁵ BLANCHARD, F. L., "The Essentials of Advertising," 1921.

⁶ RUXTON, R., "Printed Salesmanship," 1922.

⁷ HERROLD, L. D., "Advertising for the Retailer," 1923.

⁸ HESS, H. W., *op. cit.*

⁹ WATSON, H., "Knack of Selling," Book II, 1913.

¹⁰ HAWKINS, N., "The Selling Process," 1918.

2. Presentation steps:
 - a. Sizing up the buyer (Chap. VII).
 - b. Gaining attention and awakening interest (Chap. VIII).
3. Convincing steps:
 - a. Persuading and creating desire (Chap. IX).
 - b. Handling objections (Chap. X).
4. Closing steps:
 - a. Securing decision and obtaining signature (Chap. XI).
 - b. Get-away and lead to future orders (Chap. XII).

Hawkins recognizes three stages of attention: (1) compulsory attention, (2) curiosity to some degree, and (3) intentional or spontaneous attention; and three stages of interest: (1) attentive interest, (2) associating interest, and (3) personal interest. He insists that the prospect must be taken through all these six stages before he reaches the state of desire. Regardless of whether this is true or false the writer is certain that no salesman ever can identify these six stages as they are experienced by a prospect; and no salesman ever does or can say to himself, "Now he is in stage three of attention; I must get him into stage one of interest."

Although Hawkins' book is based on this formula the writer is convinced from studying it, especially Chap. IX, that Hawkins' point of view belongs under the third theory where wants are emphasized, not states of mind. But he has clearly attempted to fit his views into this formula of attention, interest, desire, action, satisfaction.

Emphasis upon This Formula Decreasing.—Judging from a perusal of recent literature, interest in this theory is dying out to some extent. Several books like those of Sloan and Mooney on "Advertising the Technical Product," 1920; Blanchard, "The Essentials of Advertising," 1921; Ramsay, "Effective Direct Advertising," 1921; Ruxton, "Printed Salesmanship," 1922; and Herrold, "Advertising for the Retailer," 1923; devote only a few pages to the subject. These writers outline what is to be done and how to do it. Whatever theory they have is practically excluded from their works.

Nearly All Authorities Still Emphasize "Attention" and "Interest."—Although many authorities do not include the

word "satisfaction" in their formulation, and some writers employ "conviction" for "desire," yet all insist that "attention" and "interest" must be present and must come first.

It is true that attention and interest must be present whenever a prospect does buy. But it ought to be equally apparent that these mental states are not the goal that the seller desires to reach. Instead, the seller should aim to establish certain ideas and feelings relative to what the buyer can get out of his goods. The mistaken emphasis is responsible for many a poor advertisement, (probably the explanation of the advertisements in Figs. 24 and 25) and for many a poorly introduced sales presentation.

SELLING EXPLAINED IN TERMS OF APPEAL AND RESPONSE

Hollingworth¹ gives his book the subtitle, "Principles of Appeal and Response," indicative of his behavioristic point of view. Chapters I, XIII, XIV, and XV discuss the various appeals that will produce a buying response. Much space is devoted to the question as to which appeals are the strongest.² The remainder of the book considers four tasks of the advertiser or seller, namely: catching the attention; holding the attention; fixing the impression; and provoking the response. The theory is, apparently, that if the proper appeal is presented and the prospect gives it his attention the desired response will result, especially if the process is skillfully handled.

Hollingworth makes clear to the discerning reader that the strength of an appeal is dependent upon the prospect's own instinctive and habitual ways of acting. In other words, appeals are good or poor depending upon the internal factors affecting the individual at the time. But the ordinary reader does not get this point.

Parts II, III, and IV of Starch's book³ are concerned with a study of the prospect, the appeals that can be made to him, and the presentation of those appeals. His whole work stresses the necessity of determining what appeals will be most effective in selling a particular commodity to a particular class of prospects.

¹ HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., "Advertising and Selling," 1913.

² See chap. XXIII for consideration of this point.

³ STARCH, D., *op. cit.*, 1923.

So long as emphasis is put upon appeals—external factors presented by the salesman—just so long there remains the problem of making the prospect pay attention and become interested. This is true because the emphasis remains upon causing the prospect to become interested in what the salesman has to say instead of the seller adapting himself to the prospect and presenting to the buyer what he desires (review Chap. I in this connection).

It is most natural, then, that both Hollingworth and Starch should continue to emphasize the getting of attention and interest. It is difficult, in fact, to get away from this point of view. The writer tried very hard to do so but with imperfect success in his book on "Psychology of Selling Life Insurance."¹

The discussion in this book is presented under two main heads: the strategy and the tactics of selling. Strategy covers the preapproach or preparation for selling; tactics, the execution of the sales plan when face to face with the prospect.

The strategy is viewed as involving five steps. First of all, the prospect must be analyzed in order to discover his interests, desires, and needs. Second, the appropriate insurance to fit his case must be decided upon. Third, the convictions that the prospect must have before he will buy must be determined. Fourth the impulses (wants), that he must be conscious of before he will buy must be determined. Fifth, the salesman must decide what appeals he must make to the prospect so that he will establish the necessary convictions and arouse the necessary impulses and so cause the prospect to buy. This can be diagrammatically expressed as follows, in terms of the Bagley-Barnes interview given in Chap. III:

¹ STRONG, E. K., JR., "Psychology of Selling Life Insurance," 1923.

SITUATION (APPEALS)		RESPONSE	
<i>Ideas, Reasons</i>		<i>Convictions</i>	
No. 1.	—→No. 1.	My son must go to college.	
No. 2	—→No. 2.	He should not work his way through college.	
No. 3	—→No. 3.	I may die before that time.	
No. 4	—→No. 4.	An educational policy makes my son's college education a certainty and eliminates a possible heavy burden from my wife; it further eliminates the necessity of my boy working his way through college.	
No. 5	—→No. 5.	Details of policy are satisfactory: covers college expenses, provides endowment features, and costs but a small amount.	
<i>Incitements</i>		<i>Impulses</i>	Buy policy. Be permanently satisfied.
No. 1	—→No. 1.	Love for son.	
No. 2	—→No. 2.	Very great interest in college.	
No. 3	—→No. 3.	Love for wife.	
No. 4	—→No. 4.	Desire for approval.	
No. 5	—→No. 5.	Fighting-instinct—to struggle against difficulties in order to take care of son, wife, and daughter.	

In this diagram, the column headed by "Situation" summarizes the salesman's sales presentation. All his remarks should be designed to establish certain convictions and certain impulses (or wants) within the mind of the prospect. What remarks should be uttered depends upon what convictions are to be established and what wants to be aroused. "Idea No. 1" represents in this diagram all those utterances of the salesman which are deemed necessary to cause the prospect to be firmly convinced his "son must go to college." Similarly, "Incitement No. 1" represents all those utterances which are deemed necessary to cause the prospect to feel strongly his "love for his son."

The view held here is that if a given prospect becomes fully possessed of certain convictions and certain impulses (the number of these may be one or many and not necessarily five

as shown above) he will respond by buying. What the salesman presents are appeals or stimuli, and all the wants and convictions that come to mind within the prospect are motives for buying, tending to cause that response.

There is a frank recognition in this theory that the prospect will not buy until he is possessed of certain ideas and wants; that these must be guessed at by the salesman; and that then he must cause them to possess the mind of the prospect. The present book is an attempt to restate the above in simpler form.

SELLING EXPLAINED IN TERMS OF WANT AND SOLUTION

In the section of the work of Tipper, Hollingworth, Hotchkiss, and Parsons¹ devoted to a discussion of the theory of selling appear these five main heads:

1. Fundamental needs of man.
2. The commodity.
3. The establishment of association between commodity and need—the creation of mental habits of such a sort that the feeling of the need at once suggests to the mind of the individual the commodity in question.
4. The making of the association dynamic.
5. The securing of vividness of impression.

The emphasis here is upon what the prospect wants or needs, and the aim of advertising is to associate this need with the seller's goods. The starting point is what is in the mind of the prospect, not appeals to be put into that mind. This sounds a new note in selling literature. But for some reason little attention has been given it.

Charters² pictures the prospect having a need to be satisfied, or a problem to be solved. He defines the art of retail selling as the art of helping the customer to define his need, and to select the articles which will satisfy that need. The five steps of purchasing, according to Charters, are:

1. The customer tries to get a clear idea of what he wants.
2. He looks at many articles which might possibly satisfy him.
3. He studies these in the light of his standards.

¹ TIPPER, H., HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., HOTCHKISS, G. B., and PARSONS, F. A., "Advertising," chap. IV, 1915.

² CHARTERS, W. W., "How to Sell at Retail," 1922.

4. He selects the one which seems to meet them best.
5. He sizes up his purchase and experiences a feeling of satisfaction or of dissatisfaction.

Here a picture of selling is given where the prospect is very active because he has a want to be satisfied and the salesman's job is to aid the prospect in his endeavors to solve his problem. The emphasis is quite different from that expressed in the other two theories of selling.

In Herrold's¹ text are to be found passages supporting all three of the theories discussed here. No one can read his work, however, without appreciating his emphasis upon the buyer's wants.

The present book presents selling in terms of want, solution, action, and satisfaction. Selling with such a formula in mind becomes a process of calling to the prospect's mind some one or more of his wants and then showing how they may be satisfied by buying the seller's goods. The term "action" implies that the seller must more or less force the issue at the end; also that the prospect must not only buy but use the commodity, and that the seller must make sure he can and will use it correctly. "Satisfaction" is, finally, most important because unless the goods measure up to expectations, there will be no repeat orders.

When "Want" Is Emphasized First, "Getting Attention and Interest" Ceases to be a Major Problem.—Whenever one of a prospect's wants is called to his mind, his attention and interest are automatically secured, and are essentially relevant. Consequently, the terms "attention" and "interest" can be eliminated from selling and advertising literature. In every case, the problem reduces itself to: "What wants does he have? How can I get them into his mind?"

There remain a number of minor problems that have always been discussed under the headings of getting attention and interest. They had better be considered from other angles. "How to introduce oneself," "Whether to shake hands," and all the rest belong under such a heading as "Starting the Interview." And problems of "Size of the advertisement," "Eye-movement," "Balance," "White-space," and the like belong

¹HERROLD, L. D., *op. cit.*

under such a heading as "Layout," or "How to present the proposition in the best manner."

Questions

1. What are the three theories of selling? Explain how they differ.
2. What practical difference does it make which theory is held?
3. For the sake of simplicity the writer has boiled down the theories of selling held by authorities to a very few words. This has made it necessary to ignore shades of meaning. To that extent what has appeared in the preceding pages is not an exact picture of the situation. In order, therefore, to rectify this inaccuracy, read enough of several of these writers to gain a first-hand impression of what their theories of selling are.

CHAPTER XXIII

APPEALS

"How to say it," has been more emphasized than "what to say." Apparently the supposition has been that a salesman or advertiser naturally knew what to present to a prospect, or could at least discover without trouble; and that his failures were due not to faulty appeals but to improper methods of presenting the appeals.

Recently many authorities have given more attention to the problem of "what to say." Their discussions generally appear under the heading of "Appeals," or "Talking Points."

There are two main problems here: How to find the talking points and, which are the best ones to use.

FINDING THE APPEALS OR SELLING POINTS

Appeals are discovered through an analysis of the article for sale and of the motives which influence customers to buy it. Seemingly the easiest and most direct method is to get into personal contact with customers as they buy, and so ascertain what motives have influenced them. Actually this is not easy to do. It requires that the seller shall postpone performing his regular duties for a time while he occupies an observer's post. Few have the patience or inclination to do this.

All manner of short cuts have been attempted. These may be grouped under the following heads: (1) analysis of article itself; (2) use of a standard list of appeals; (3) indirect analysis of consumers, *i.e.*, use of what sellers think are the appeals which influence consumers; and (4) direct analysis of consumers.

1. Appeals Are Obtained from an Analysis of the Commodity.—Such analysis is essential, of course. One cannot sell without knowing what it is one is selling. And one cannot cope with competition without knowing what competitors have to sell (see Chap. VIII for detailed discussion).

2. Appeals Are Obtained from Standard Lists.—Many authorities have endeavored to short cut the labors of analyzing the product and the consumer by presenting a standard list of appeals. The theory back of such a list is that all the seller need do is to go through the list and select those appeals which apply to his particular case.

Watson¹ wrote in 1913:

Back of every mental decision a man or a woman makes lies a motive, lies one of these five particular motives:

- a. Gain of money.
- b. Gain of satisfaction.
- c. Satisfaction of pride.
- d. Satisfaction of caution.
- e. Yielding to weakness.

After you have correctly picked the strongest motive to arouse, ways of arousing it come naturally. And often the very best part of a canvass will be quickly worked out the instant you hit on the right motive.

This very simple list has been quoted extensively.

Sloan and Mooney² list fifty-five "suggestions for advertising ammunition" under the following heads:

- a. Price. For example, saving in dollars and cents on first cost, per unit of service, on work done, etc.
- b. Service records—authenticated.
- c. Photographs.
- d. Letter of commendation.
- e. Statements of commendation.
- f. Lists of users.
- g. Tests—authenticated.
- h. Illustrations.
- i. The institution.
- j. Guarantees.
- k. News.
- l. Engineering service available.
- m. Money-making features of product and manufacturer's proposition (in advertising to dealers). For example, the prospective sales volume, the percentage of profit, the "turnover," the manufacturer's advertising, the manufacturer's cooperation available, the quality of the product.

¹ WATSON, H., "Knack of Selling," Book I, p. 5, 1913.

² SLOAN, C. A., and MOONEY, J. D., "Advertising the Technical Product," p. 184, 1920.

Tipper, Hollingworth, Hotchkiss, and Parsons¹ give a list of "the chief instincts operative in connection with business transactions." Psychologists, writing on this subject, have almost always given similar lists. In recent years many others² have come to see the fundamental relationship of man's instincts, or fundamental wants, to selling (see Chaps. IX and X of this text). Herrold,³ for example, points out that "the characteristics more or less common to all people to which appeals in advertisements may be directed are: (1) the instincts; (2) the senses; and (3) the interests." Twenty-four appeals are given by him. As an aid to the seller in using these appeals Herrold lists the verbs and adjectives which can be appropriately used in connection with them.

Herrold illustrates the use of such a standard list of appeals in the case of the product Filmette, an assumed dress-goods. From among his total list he finds thirteen appeals that are appropriate. The first five are reproduced:

Comfort: cool, comfortable. A dress of this material will make you feel cool and comfortable on hot summer afternoons. Will give you the satisfaction of knowing that you are well-dressed wherever you may happen to be.

Curiosity: Surprising fabric of silk and cotton, unusually firm yet sheer.

Imitation: Heartily endorsed by Paris. Authoritative material for the South and California. Favorite for Palm Beach.

Play: At a lake or summer resort it will give you the satisfaction of being comfortably and charmingly gowned.

Ornamentation: Lovely novelty material in charming bright colors. Can be made into very becoming dresses. Can also be made into blouses and dainty and bewitching accessories; such as, negligees, boudoir caps, etc.

It is obvious that Herrold has done far more than merely select from his complete list of appeals those that apply to Filmette. In fact, he has used the list primarily to call appeals to mind. Each such appeal has then recalled many details based on his knowledge of the product and of his customers.

¹ TIPPER, H., HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., HOTCHKISS, G. B., and PARSONS, F. A., "Advertising," chap. VI, 1915.

² For example, see COPELAND, M. T., "Principles of Merchandising," chaps. VI and VII, "Consumer's Buying Motives," and "Buying Motives for Industrial Goods," 1924.

³ HERROLD, L. D., "Advertising for the Retailer," chap. VI, 1923.

3. Appeals Are Obtained from Indirect Analysis of Consumers.—Very valuable information can be obtained from manufacturers concerning appropriate appeals for their goods, from manufacturer's salesmen, from dealers, and from dealer's retail buyers and salesmen (see Chap. VIII for discussion).

4. Appeals Are Obtained from Direct Analysis of Consumers.—The man who desires to obtain appeals for a given commodity can obtain them by personally using the commodity and noting his own reactions. He can also obtain them by talking with *bona fide* customers and with his personal friends, who often will pass on to him information that is hardly ever obtained in the office. But this point has already been considered in Chap. VIII, also in Chaps. XVI to XIX, and will be further discussed in Chap. XXIV.

Because the average person cannot explain accurately why he uses or does not use a particular commodity, and because the average seller in quizzing others finds just about what he is looking for, it is extremely important that a selling organization should from time to time make a thoroughgoing, systematic analysis of the motives which influence its customers. Otherwise it is quite likely that effective appeals will be overlooked and emphasis be placed improperly.

SELECTING THE BEST APPEALS

A variety of methods are employed in determining the relative strength of appeals.

1. Determination of the Relative Strength of Appeals by "Hunches."—The advertising manager of a company spending a large amount of money annually in advertising was asked in 1919 regarding the use of certain farm papers. One paragraph of his answering letter illustrates the fact that "intuition" is used to determine the solution of many advertising problems.

Owing to the fact that we do not key our advertising in any way, it is practically impossible for us to determine, except in a very general way, whether a farm paper is producing satisfactory results. Therefore, we have to depend to a considerable extent on "intuition." That may not be considered a very scientific method of determining the value of an advertising media, but it seems the only feasible method under our present merchandising and advertising policy.

In a similar way the president of a company often accepts or rejects the layout of his advertising agency because it does or does not appeal to him, or to his wife, or to some friend. And sometimes the experts have nothing more to go on than similar information. Many executives fail to appreciate that they are not necessarily good judges of the effectiveness of appeals in connection with their own goods. They are not typical prospects and their minds cannot react as do those of prospective buyers. This is particularly true in connection with the problem of how much copy to run. Many executives are high-strung men who find it very difficult to read for many minutes on any serious subject. They do not realize that those who know little or nothing about their product will read a good deal of copy providing they are interested.

2. Determination of the Strength of Appeals by the Number of Times They Are Quoted by Customers, Salesmen, and Dealers in an Investigation.—As typical of the results obtained by questioning people as to why they bought a certain article consider these two results published years ago by Scott.¹

In one case the motives were:

1. Reliability of the goods or the firm.
2. The goods supply a present need.
3. Money considerations, *e.g.*, cheapness, investment, chance to win.
4. Labor-saving, convenient, or useful.
5. Healthful.
6. Stylish.
7. An attractive and frequently repeated advertisement.

In another case the reasons for advertisements proving interesting were in the order of their frequency:

1. Reliability (607 replies).
2. Financial considerations (508 replies).
3. Construction of the advertisement (418 replies).
4. Present need of the reader (408 replies).

Data from questionnaires and investigations often appear in this form and frequently are relied upon implicitly. Many times such results are very valuable but at other times it is questionable if they are complete explanations of the situation. For

¹ Scott, W. D., "Psychology of Advertising," pp. 122 and 155, 1912.

example, take Scott's second list of reasons for buying. Surely "reliability" does not explain why a person bought the article at all, though it may explain why it was bought from Company A instead of Company B. "Construction of the advertisement" can hardly be a motive for buying, though it might be the reason the advertisement was read. Yet 418 persons explained their purchase in terms of it.

3. Determination of the Strength of Appeals in General, Regardless of the Particular Article for Sale.—Hollingworth,¹ Adams,² and Starch³ hold that it is possible to measure the strength of appeals in general without regard to any specific commodity. And that when such a sequence has been determined it can be used as a guide in selecting appeals for any selling campaign.

Hollingworth experimentally used such appeals as the following:

1K₆—*Scientific*.—Our IK₆ article is manufactured by approved scientific methods and scientifically tested processes, by technically trained men, working under the constant supervision of experts.

2U₃—*Personality*.—Everyone desires to be attractive to the opposite sex. 2U₃ will give you distinctive presence and engaging personality which is irresistible in its appeal.

Hollingworth found the first one of these two the strongest of his fifty appeals and the last one the weakest of all.

He explains, as follows, the use of the table which lists his fifty appeals in order of merit according to their effectiveness:

Taking the table as it stands, the various instincts and interests there represented stand in their order of strength in so far as they may serve as the basis of appeal in business transactions, regardless of the commodity concerned. But it is obvious that not all of these appeals can be used in the case of any single commodity. Thus "Appetizing Qualities" cannot apply to the sale of diamonds or shoes, nor could "Durability" be applied to the merchandizing of food products. The table, nevertheless, affords an approximate statement of the relative strength of available appeals for any given commodity. It is only necessary to begin at the top of the list and

¹ HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., "Advertising and Selling," chaps. XIII, XIV, 1913. Also in TIPPER, HOLLINGWORTH, HOTCHKISS, and PARSONS, *op. cit.* chap. VI.

² ADAMS, H. F., "Advertising and Its Mental Laws," chap. IX, 1916.

³ STARCH, D., "Principles of Advertising," chap. XII, 1923.

select the first appeal which could be applied to the description of the commodity in question. This will then constitute the strongest appeal which can be made in the interest of the commodity. The next in the list which would apply appropriately would be the next strongest, etc.

Adams writing somewhat later explains that:

These appeals can be applied only to those commodities for which there is a felt need on the part of the reader. The average man does not care whether a wireless telephone will transmit messages for 1 mile or 1,000 miles, for the wireless telephone is not one of his present needs [written in 1916!]. Therefore, an appeal to its durability, its scientific manufacture, its quality, would be a waste of time. Such information gives the reader an interesting bit of scientific gossip, but would not sell the article before a need was felt for it. The arousing of consciousness of the need for a given commodity is a very different psychological process, in which the selfish or the social motives must be appealed to.

It is interesting to note that, although Starch presents a table, he makes no use of it; his entire interest is directed to investigations in terms of measuring the strength of appeals in the case of each particular commodity.

One serious criticism of such a table, and a criticism that applies to all methods for determining motives, is that emotional appeals are often rated too low. Everyone is aware of the fact that "admiration," "beauty," and "personality" are powerful motives in everyday life. But when they are thought of intellectually they are devoid of the emotional aspect which actuates behavior and so they are rated low. Appeals such as "imported," "royalty," "style," and "nobby," influence everyone, but to admit it is distasteful. They also are rated too low in all statements of the case. The writer doubts the possibility of getting a fair rating of such appeals except when they are so presented, that the individual actually comes to *feel* them, not think about the feeling; and has in addition an opportunity to explain his rating in terms of some rational appeal that is complimentary to him. For example, if an advertisement contains an appeal expressive of "desire for social approval" and at the same time another appeal such as "economy" or "health" the advertisement may be rated high because of the former appeal. The individual is free to rate it as he feels because he can easily cover up his feelings by explaining his action in terms of the "economy" or "health" appeal.

The writer, accordingly, agrees with Adams that such tables can be made very useful (the present ones are not yet sufficiently well standardized), but they will be useful in determining the strength of reasons why to buy a particular brand and not useful in determining the strength of motives leading one to want any brand at all. In other words, if a person wants to buy soap then the method employed in these experiments and described in detail in Sec. 6 below can be used with marked success to indicate which reason is the strongest in influencing people to buy a particular brand of soap. But, if the person does not want the commodity, it is still an open question whether this method will indicate what appeals will be most effective in creating the want.

4. Determination of the Strength of Appeals by Amount of Business Secured.—Direct-by-mail campaigns can often be so keyed that it is possible to determine accurately just how much business is secured from each advertisement. But in most campaigns no such data can be secured and when it is possible to obtain figures, the data that are secured cannot be relied upon implicitly. For example, one advertisement may bring in twice as many requests for a booklet as another, and yet in many cases there is good proof it did not produce twice the business. Because conditions such as medium, date, size of space, position, use of color or not, presence of coupon or not, are seldom constant it is often impossible to deduce any conclusions as to which appeal was most effective, even when apparently reliable data are secured.

5. Determination of the Strength of Appeals by Preliminary Tryout.—If five letters have been prepared for a direct-by-mail campaign to 40,000 names, it is possible to send the five letters to a thousand names each, and then in terms of the results determine which is the best letter. This letter can then be sent to the remaining 35,000 names with some real assurance that it will bring in maximum returns. This principle is frequently utilized to determine perplexing problems in an advertising campaign. Thus before Crisco was put on the market a whole year was consumed in making investigations to find the right line of sales and advertising action. These investigations were conducted simultaneously, as follows:

1. A city of 50,000 population was selected, and a complete house-to-house canvass made. (A novel idea was introduced here. The salesmen who were working on the house-to-house canvass sold a case of goods to a dealer, and then bought back one-half of the goods from him, at the full retail price. The canvasser then took over the goods bought back from the dealer, and sold them to the consumer.)

2. In another city, newspaper advertising was tried out, without any cooperative sales work, except the footnote at the bottom of the advertisement, which reminded the purchaser to "call upon the dealer."

3. In still another city, this same kind of newspaper publicity was linked up with active sales work on the dealer, and the result of this compared with the other experiments.

4. Another city was selected for the purpose of using street-car ads

5. In one city outdoor display was used.

6. In one city demonstrations were held at stores.

7. One other city was selected for the purpose of using all methods together.

If such tryouts are properly safeguarded very valuable information can be obtained. Another variation is to run advertisements in certain mediums with restricted circulation as country newspapers and check the results. The national campaign is then based upon the experience gained from these local mediums.

6. Determinations of the Strength of Appeals by the "Order of Merit" Method.—Large advertisements and complete sales talks contain quite properly more than one appeal. Consequently, if data are obtained as to the efficiency of such complete presentations it is well-nigh impossible to determine the effectiveness of the separate appeals contained therein. In order to measure the individual appeals several psychologists have run experiments in which the dummy advertisements that were used contained but one appeal. Two such "advertisements" are reproduced here:

Breakfast Food No. 6 is the ideal *brain* and *nerve* food. It is quickly digested, and the phosphate of potash combines with albumen in the system to form new brain and nerve cells.

Breakfast Food No. 14 is sold from 60 degrees North latitude—Norway—to 45 degrees South latitude—New Zealand.

In every village and city in all that great region you will find fellow-beings eating it for breakfast.¹

These "dummy advertisements" were based on actual advertisements but were so altered as to make use of only the desire for

¹ STRONG, E. K., JR., "Relative Merit of Advertisements," chap. V, 1911.

brain food in the first case, and, in the second case, the desire to eat what people all over the world are eating.

The *procedure* followed in such tests is as follows: The individual to be tested is supplied with the various appeals, each appearing on a separate sheet of paper. He is then given the following directions:

Sort these advertisements into five piles according to the order in which *you would buy* the breakfast food (or whatever the commodity is).

Take for granted that each advertisement represents a different make of breakfast food.

When the above is completed sort the advertisements in each pile as to their persuasiveness with respect to each other. When you are through with the five piles you will have the advertisements arranged in a descending series of merit, from the advertisement which most makes you want to buy to the advertisement which least makes you want to buy.¹

The *data are scored* as follows:

Advertisements	Individuals					Total	Average
	A	B	C	D	E		
No. 1.....	1	2	3	1	1	8	1.6
No. 2.....	2	1	1	4	2	10	2.0
No. 3.....	4	3	2	3	5	17	3.4
No. 4.....	3	5	4	5	3	20	4.0
No. 5.....	5	4	5	2	4	20	4.0

In this case advertisement No. 1 was selected as best by individuals A, D, and E; as second best by B; and third best by C. The average rank is 1.6. The advertisements rank in value as

¹ The third paragraph can be omitted if a considerable number of advertisements are to be sorted. The results from 100 persons will be practically identical in both cases. When a few advertisements are used it is better to use the procedure in the third paragraph.

Sometimes it is worth while to instruct the individuals to "read through these advertisements and then sort them," etc. But ordinarily it is best to omit the word "read." Then if they don't want to read they do not have to.

follows: No. 1 first; No. 2 second; No. 3 third; and Nos. 4 and 5 tied for fourth-and-a-half place.¹

Typical results from such a test are shown in Table III where the results from ninety-five women and one hundred and one men

TABLE III.—RELATIVE STRENGTH OF APPEALS TO BUY TOILET SOAP¹

Adver- tise- ment	Appeal	Median rating		Median rating	
		95 women	101 men	52 women students	43 other women
16	Cleanliness.....	2.7	3.9	2.2	3.4
6	Does not irritate.....	4.1	6.0	3.8	4.4
10	Health.....	5.3	6.5	5.1	5.4
8	Expensive.....	6.4	8.6	7.2	4.8
1	Beauty.....	8.1	10.7	8.6	6.9
11	Shampoo, bath.....	8.3	6.4	9.3	6.9
17	Exhilaration in bath.....	8.4	8.6	8.2	8.8
9	Guaranteed.....	9.4	9.6	9.2	9.6
2	Doctor's recommendation....	9.7	9.5	9.5	9.9
3	Baby.....	9.8	9.6	9.3	11.0
5	Try at our expense.....	10.1	10.1	9.8	10.3
13	Reliable firm.....	10.1	9.4	9.8	10.4
4	Used at Carnegie Institute....	11.6	12.1	11.0	12.3
12	Sold everywhere.....	12.6	13.1	12.3	13.3
18	Roosevelt's recommendation...	13.7	12.1	14.3	12.9
15	Royalty's recommendation....	14.5	11.1	14.3	15.1
19	Cheap.....	15.1	14.8	14.7	16.0
7	"For Particular People".....	15.4	12.3	17.5	12.8
20	Large manufacturing plant....	16.6	16.5	16.8	15.0
14	Premium.....	19.1	18.8	19.3	19.0

¹ STRONG, E. K. JR., *op. cit.*, Table XIV.

are given in the case of twenty appeals for toilet soap. The data from the ninety-five women are also presented under the two

¹ Those familiar with statistical methods should use the A.D. in connection with the average. The median and quartile are possibly better measures than the average and A.D.

captions of fifty-two women college students and forty-three other women, including married and unmarried women ranging in age from twenty to sixty.

There is a striking uniformity in the reactions of both men and women to these appeals. The only noticeable sex differences are that "beauty" is rated fifth by the women and twelfth by the men; "shampoo, bath" is rated sixth by the women and third by the men; and "reliable firm" is rated twelfth by the women and seventh by the men. The only significant difference between the ratings of the two groups of women is in the case of the appeal "for particular women." The non-student group rate this fourteenth instead of nineteenth. If a group of scrub-women were tested the "premium" appeal would undoubtedly appear much higher than twentieth.

In order that such tests shall be adequate it is important that a sufficient number of *bona fide* prospective customers be tested so as to insure that they will be representative of prospective customers as a whole. This means at least several hundred persons selected at random from different parts of the country and from urban and country districts. Unfortunately, most of the tests conducted so far have been restricted to less than 100 persons.

The above procedure can be employed to test entire advertisements just as well as specific appeals. When this is done, fairly reliable information can be secured as to the relative "pulling-power" of the various advertisements. Hollingworth, Starch, and Strong report many instances where the test results agree remarkably well with the best available data. The results from testing nine full-page, colored, advertisements of prunes, all of which were run in the same woman's magazine, will illustrate the point; and also call attention to one difficulty that arises in comparing test results with the number of inquiries received.

The nine advertisements are listed in column No. 1 of Table IV in the order they were run. In column No. 2 are given the actual number of inquiries that were received, expressed in terms of ratios of advertisement No. 5 which brought in the largest number. In column No. 3 these ratios are given their rank order, advertisement No. 5 as "1," advertisement No. 1 as "2," etc. In column No. 4 appears the rank order as determined by the order of merit test. The correlation between these two orders

TABLE IV.—SHOWING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACTUAL RETURNS AND TEST RESULTS IN NINE PRUNE ADVERTISEMENTS

Advertise- ments	Actual returns	Rank order		Rank order on basis of suggestion to write	Average columns Nos. 4 and 5	Rank order of column No. 6
		Actual returns	Test results			
No. 1.....	84	2	1	1½	1¼	1
No. 2.....	69	3	7½	1½	4½	4½
No. 3.....	23	9	9	8½	8¾	9
No. 4.....	61	4	2	4½	3¼	2
No. 5.....	100	1	3	4½	3¾	3
No. 6.....	31	6	4½	8½	6½	7
No. 7.....	24	8	7½	7	7¼	8
No. 8.....	40	5	4½	4½	4½	4½
No. 9.....	29	7	6	4½	5¼	6

is +0.63. The relationship is very close except in the case of advertisement No. 2 which stood third in actual returns and seventh-and-a-half in the test.

The number of inquiries produced by an advertisement is dependent upon at least two factors, *i.e.*, strength of the appeal and strength of the suggestion to write. Other things being equal, an advertisement with a coupon will always bring in more inquiries than one without. None of these nine advertisements contained a coupon; but the strength of the suggestion to write varied considerably. In advertisements Nos. 1 and 2 a prominent subtitle called attention to the recipe packet which could be secured. In advertisements Nos. 4, 5, 8, and 9 recipes were prominently displayed; in advertisement No. 7 a single recipe was given but rather inconspicuously, and in advertisements Nos. 3 and 6 no recipe was shown at all. Advertisements Nos. 1 and 2 were given, accordingly, the rank order of 1½ as to suggestiveness to write; advertisements 4, 5, 8, and 9, the rank order of 4½; advertisement No. 7, the rank order of 7; and advertisements Nos. 3 and 6, the rank order of 8½; as in column No. 5 of the table.

Experimental test records, as far as is known, are not influenced by the suggestion to write but only by the strength of the appeal.

Accordingly test results should be weighted in some way to take account of the suggestion to write in order that they may be compared more fairly with the number of inquiries that are received. Averaging the rank order position from the test (column No. 4) and that of the strength of the suggestion to write (column No. 5) is one way of doing this. The averages are shown in column No. 6. A final rank order based on these ranks is shown in column No. 7. The correlation between the data in columns No. 3 and No. 7 is 0.89. Here there is a very high correlation between actual returns and experimental results.

If the test had been run prior to using the advertisements, and if on the basis of the experimental results the three poorest advertisements (Nos. 3, 7, and 6) had been eliminated, and three new ones prepared averaging in strength to the six that were kept, the efficiency of the campaign would have been increased by 24 per cent. It is an interesting fact in this campaign that the poorest advertisement (No. 3) was used more than any other. It was run in four periodicals; advertisements Nos. 1, 8, and 9 were run in three magazines; advertisements Nos. 4 and 5 in two mediums; and the remainder in but one medium. If all nine advertisements had been kept, but the best one according to the test (No. 1) had been used in four magazines, the next three according to the test (Nos. 4, 5, and 2), in three magazines, and the next two (Nos. 8 and 9), in two magazines, there would have been an increase in returns of 25 per cent. If both of these precautions had been taken the increase would have been 36 per cent. And the cost of this increase should not have exceeded the hire of an intelligent woman for a week plus that of preparing three new advertisements similar to the six best ones. (All of these calculations are made in terms of inquiries received. To the extent this measurement of advertising efficiency is unreliable to just that extent must one remain ignorant of the true situation.)

INFLUENCE OF THE THREE THEORIES OF SELLING UPON CONSIDERATION OF APPEALS

Those authorities who have enthusiastically espoused the slogan of attention, interest, desire, action, satisfaction, have seldom given space to the problem of what to say. This is

well exemplified in the writings of Kitson¹ and Hawkins² who do not even have a subheading devoted to the subject or list the term "appeal" in their index. This is quite natural since their emphasis is upon establishing certain states of mind in the prospect.

Hall³ and Ramsay⁴ are typical of other authorities who subscribe to this point of view but give little space to the formula in their works. They give instruction as to what to do in connection with many advertising problems but they give very little attention to the methods of finding and selecting the proper appeals.

On the other hand, those authorities who have expressed their theory of selling in terms of appeals-response have devoted a great deal of attention to what to say, and how to determine not only the various appeals but which ones are best.

In many cases these authorities have given the impression that there are definite motives, such as, ambition, taste, cleanliness, efficiency and the like; that these motives have varying strengths as regards moving people to action; and that part of the science of advertising lies in evaluating these motives and then utilizing the information.

The third theory of selling, in terms of want-solution-action-satisfaction, was definitely outlined in the work by Tipper, Hollingworth, Hotchkiss, and Parsons but relatively little was made of it and most of the discussion on appeals was really in terms of the second theory, *i.e.*, appeals-response. Charters⁵ wrote wholeheartedly from the point of view of the third theory. It is interesting to note that he made no attempt to evaluate appeals and gives only a few pages directly to the subject. In his chapter on "The Selling Talk" he lists the following appeals: appearance or beauty; quality; style; becomingness; durability; serviceability, comfort; price; practical convenience; and sentiment. He devotes most of his space to the problem of how to size up customers in order to discover what they want. Charters

¹ KITSON, H. D., "The Mind of the Buyer," 1921.

² HAWKINS, N., "The Selling Process," 1918.

³ HALL, S. R., "The Advertising Handbook," 1921.

⁴ RAMSAY, R. E., "Effective Direct Advertising," 1921

⁵ CHARTERS, W. W., "How to Sell at Retail," 1922.

introduces his second chapter on "The Sizing-up Process" in these words:

Salespeople size up customers for the purpose of discovering facts which will assist them in giving efficient service.

It was stated in the first chapter that the salesman's chief usefulness lies in his ability to help the customer make the proper decision concerning the goods that are to be bought. This would be a very easy matter if the customer were always able to state exactly what he wanted, and had at the same time enough knowledge about the merchandise to make up his mind as soon as he saw it. But it is not so simple a task as this because, as we have seen, he is often not quite sure of what he wants, nor does he himself have all the information that he needs. So a very important part of the salesperson's work is the discovery of all the facts that will help him to assist the customer.

The writer believes that, as this third view comes to be understood and utilized, there will be less attention given to abstract appeals and more emphasis upon presenting typical concrete experiences which worry prospects, coupled with suggestions as to how the seller's goods can bring relief.

Before an appeal can be formulated the seller must determine just what his aim is: whether to get an order, or secure a written inquiry, or generate goodwill, or keep interest alive, or what not. Second the seller must get clearly in mind what an individual prospect wants in the case of selling, or what a group of prospects want in the case of advertising. And third, the seller must present in words and illustrations such ideas that the prospect will feel his want and realize that the goods offered for sale will satisfy him.

Summary.—*Appeals should not be abstract reasons, but explanations of how to satisfy wants.*

When a prospect knows nothing about a product and is not particularly concerned about the wants that may be satisfied by that product, the proper appeals must include all the elements in the buying formula. On the other hand, if the seller is convinced that any one or more of the elements is in the mind of the prospect, such elements may be omitted from his appeals and only the remainder stressed. (Review Chap. V.)

Questions

1. How may selling points or appeals be ascertained? Which is the best method?
2. How may the best selling point be determined? What are the advantages and disadvantages of the various methods?
3. How have the three theories of selling (see Chap. XXII) affected consideration of the subject of what appeals to use?
4. Outline the procedure you would employ in determining what appeals to use in selling a new brand of shoes for boys, or a new lens for automobile head lights, or this book.
5. Obtain a set of advertisements, all advertising the same commodity, and either: (a) from the same company; or (b) from several competing companies. (These can be obtained from current magazines or newspapers.) Test them out according to the procedure outlined under the section, "Measure the strength of appeals by the 'order of merit' method."

References

See references in footnotes of this chapter.

The more important contributions to the subject of ranking the strength of appeals are:

ADAMS, H. F.: "Advertising and Its Mental Laws," chap. IX, 1920.

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HOLLINGWORTH, H. L.: "Advertising and Selling," chaps. I, XIII, XIV, 1913.

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SCOTT, W. D.: "Psychology of Advertising," chap. XI, 1908.

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—————: *Report 8*, Association of National Advertising Managers, 1914.

—————: "Relative Merits of Advertisements," 1911.

PART IV

STRATEGY AND TACTICS OF SELLING

The subject matter of selling may be considered in terms of the psychology of the prospect (as in Part II), or of the principles involved in influencing another (as in Part III), or of the precise procedure to be followed by the salesman (as in Part IV).

The question of what a salesman should do is best considered under two main heads. The first deals with his preparation before meeting the prospect. This is frequently spoken of as the "preapproach," although the writer prefers the term "strategy of selling." The second deals with the salesman's procedure when face to face with his prospect, and is discussed under the term "tactics of selling."

Strategy of selling is based upon knowledge of one's commodity (Chap. VIII) and knowledge of selling methods (Chap. I to XXIII). Essentially, it involves:

1. Analysis of one's prospect (Chap. XXIV).
2. Determination of the sales strategy (Chap. XXV).
3. Determination of the sales presentation (Chap. XXV).

The tactics of selling includes:

1. Starting the interview (Chap. XXVI).
2. Presenting the proposition (Chap. XXVII).
3. Closing the sale (Chap. XXVIII).

CHAPTER XXIV

PROSPECTING

The first step in planning a sale is to determine who the prospect is and what his wants and needs are. Without this information the salesman cannot present his proposition from the buyer's point of view.

METHODS OF LOCATING PROSPECTS

Potential prospects are all those who have some need which can be satisfied by the salesman's goods, and are also financially able to buy. Actual prospects are only those potential prospects that the salesman has definitely located.

The salesman in a retail store waits upon the prospects who come to him. The specialty salesman must go out and find those to whom he would sell. In between these two extremes fall the remaining salesmen who have more or less prospecting to do.

Eight methods of prospecting may be mentioned.

1. Prospects Furnished by Sales Manager to Salesman.—In an established business a new salesman starts in where his predecessor left off. He is supplied with information regarding regular customers and also concerning those prospects his predecessor has failed to sell. Such information is never complete or accurate. New prospects are constantly appearing; old ones die, go into bankruptcy, sell out, or change their business.

Nearly all the information of this sort that is supplied the new salesman is based upon reports which his predecessor has turned in. Some companies accumulate an amazing amount of data. Other companies do not require reports. In such cases every new salesman has to start at the beginning and build up his territory.

2. Service Reports.—There are today many agencies engaged in gathering information about prospective buyers of goods and passing it on to their clients. Thus a firm selling commodities to

be used in the construction of buildings can obtain information covering every building to be erected within a certain territory. Many technical magazines contain items relative to those who are in the market for certain classes of goods.

3. Cold Canvass.—The salesman systematically calls upon every man or woman in a certain locality, or upon every one belonging to a certain group, as every hardware dealer or every physician. In such a procedure there is no opportunity to prepare the sales-presentation to meet the *individual* needs of the prospect. In selling brushes this is no great hardship, as every householder may be assumed to need them, but in selling many complex articles it is a real difficulty. The method is frequently wasteful of much time. On the other hand, it leads the salesmen to prospects overlooked by other methods.

One company manufacturing washing machines reports that 95 per cent of its business is directly traceable to its canvassers, who among other things make a business of walking up and down alleys and so coming in contact with women as they hang out their wash.

Two options are open to the salesman who finds his prospects through cold canvass. He may attempt to sell at the first interview with no intention of coming back if he fails. This is the usual method of the house-to-house canvasser. Or he may make no effort to sell during the first interview, but use the few minutes that are available in getting acquainted. Some salesmen aim to do no more than this, while others, although making no effort to close, endeavor to acquaint the prospect with their firm and their goods. Salesmen selling to dealers, to purchasing agents, and to business men with the hope of establishing a permanent connection usually have to cultivate the buyer for some time before obtaining an order. The objective in such calls is to "get close" to the buyer—to establish a friendly personal relationship, so that when a need arises for the salesman's goods he will be thought of and given an opportunity to quote his prices. This objective can be facilitated through appropriate direct-by-mail matter sent from the salesman's home office.

4. Endless Chain.—At the end of each interview, whether successful or not, the salesman, if tactful, can often secure the names of several who the prospect believes might be interested.

The salesman may also obtain a good deal of very valuable information about these people so as to make it possible to plan his presentation in accordance with their needs and wants. Usually in such cases it is difficult to obtain permission to use the prospect's name as an introduction to his friends, but it can usually be obtained as a reference. Because many men resent the use of their name unless permission is given, care should be exercised in this regard.

5 Centers of Influence.—A modification of the "endless chain" method is called the "centers of influence" method. The salesman interests prominent persons in his proposition without attempting to sell them and after they have shown an interest obtains from them lists of persons who might be interested. It is really surprising how much trouble many individuals will put themselves to in this way. This is a favorite method of the book agent and the salesman of aluminum ware.

6. Use of Lists.—In addition to service reports it is possible to obtain lists of names grouped in every imaginable way, as members of an athletic club, of a church, of a profession or trade or occupation, of alumni of a college, etc. Frequently those in such a list have a more or less common interest and so can be interested in a given commodity in much the same way. Classified lists in the telephone directory, as well as lists giving marriage licenses, deaths, births, mortgages, accidents, etc., are valuable. One company which manufactures tile has built up its business almost entirely by direct-by-mail advertising sent to those reported as having taken out a building license, closing the business by the call of a salesman. A representative of a calculating machine studies business conditions and calls upon men in a line of business that at the time is prospering. For example, if there is unusual activity in building construction he restricts his cold canvassing to contractors, to supply houses, and the like. He secures their names from the classified telephone directory.

7. Direct-by-mail Advertising.—Extensive lists can often be cut down to those who are really interested by circularizing all by letter and calling only upon those who reply. Usually, this method is utilized by the sales manager in order to obtain names for his salesman to call upon, but frequently the salesman can do it very profitably himself.

8. Personal Observation.—A printing salesman noticed that the garage in which he kept his car was not very prosperous, and he suggested that he could get the owner more business. This he did, to the advantage of the garageman and to his own concern, through increased printing of circulars. This example is typical of thousands of opportunities that only need to be noticed to be taken advantage of. The salesman who forms the habit of asking himself, "How can I serve this man," will soon have no trouble in keeping well supplied with prospects. He will not have to pay a consultation fee, as did the salesman for a chimney-cleaning device who got for his money the advice, "Look for tall chimneys. Underneath every one is a prospect."

The successful salesman employs, more or less, all these methods. The important thing is to establish some definite procedure which will be consistently followed so as adequately to cover the territory. From time to time a "drive" organized on some new line is of value because it is almost certain to lead to new prospects and it eliminates the monotony of continuing in the same old rut.

Common Errors in Prospecting.—The salesman who assumes that everyone is a prospect for his goods wastes a great deal of time talking to those who are not interested and to those who cannot afford to buy. At the other extreme are salesmen who spend so much time in securing really valuable information about their prospects that they have little time left in which to sell. Then there is the salesman who spends a good deal of time looking for "hot tips." This type of salesman does not cover his territory in a systematic manner and he also wastes valuable time waiting for information he should actively seek.

The only rule that can be laid down here is the very general one that the cost of the salesman's time and the profit per interview must be both taken into account, and the salesman must adjust his methods of prospecting accordingly.

Many salesmen who are able to sell to men and women from many walks in life frequently overlook the value of restricting their efforts to a more unified group which would make it possible in talking to new prospects to use the names of customers who are personally known to the new prospect. It is in order to secure this advantage that the calculating machine salesman

restricts himself for several months to selling only contractors and supply dealers of building supplies. During that period he becomes well acquainted with many of these men and their problems, and this information is of aid in approaching other men in that line.

THE "PICTURE" OF THE PROSPECT

Information about a prospect is spoken of as the "picture" of the prospect. The more complete the picture the more the salesman can enter into the prospect's desires and plans, and so learn to present his proposition from the buyer's point of view.

A typical "picture" is given in Chap. III, page 20. Here is another of Mr. Acre, as supplied by a salesman of an automatic electric generator.

Charles B. Acre farms about 150 acres in New Jersey and sells his produce in the wholesale produce market in New York City.

He is about forty years old.

Is very much interested in agriculture and agricultural subjects, especially in the cooperation of farmers for the more effective marketing of produce.

Member of the executive council of the Agricultural Board of his county.

Is recognized by the rest of the farmers as the best corn grower in his county, and frequently addresses farmers at farm granges on the subject of corn growing.

He is a clever salesman, being noted for his ability to get always the "top price" in the produce market.

He is a married man with one son who is in business with him.

Is extremely devoted to his wife.

The house, although substantial and well built, was erected 150 years ago, and has absolutely no modern conveniences.

He has the reputation of being progressive, and is always the first of the farmers to install modern agricultural implements and methods.

Is not influenced by the action of his neighbors, but proceeds in everything he does upon his own initiative.

The best time to see him is 2 p.m.

Best chance to get his order is to make strong appeal in terms of his love for his wife.

Both of these pictures are very complete as compared with the average picture salesmen have. An investigation in one company showed that the salesmen frequently knew nothing about their prospects before calling, seldom possessed as many as six

items, and on the average knew less than two facts. To avoid such a condition another company urges its salesmen to secure as far as possible the answers to the following questions before calling:

1. Has the prospect ever used our line in any form?
2. Are any of our customers his friends?
3. Has the prospect ever thought of giving an order to us or to any firm handling our line?
4. Is the prospect aware of the need of our line?
5. Can the prospect really afford it?
6. Has the prospect any friends or acquaintances handling our line or our competitor's line?
7. Is he open to conviction by the right arguments or is he stubborn and resisting?
8. What type of argument would be most effective with him?
9. Has he ever been interviewed by our man or our competitor's man before?
10. When and where is the best time and place to see him?

The items that should be included in the "picture" of a prospect will depend upon many factors—the commodity to be sold, the profit per unit of sale, etc. Generally speaking there are seven different topics to be covered.

1. Financial Ability to Pay.—If the price of one's goods is a considerable amount it is important to know whether the prospect has the necessary money to spend. Salesmen of some high-priced autos will not bother with inquiries unless the person has a certain financial rating. They lose some business but they figure they save enough time to warrant it. Ability to pay is important; but the prospect's financial habits and general reputation for carrying out his plans should also be considered.

2. Physical, Moral, and Occupational Hazard.—These points are of value to the insurance agent who can easily waste much time in interviewing men only to have the policy turned down by the company because the prospect is physically, morally, or by occupation a poor risk. In many lines the salesman must take such factors into account in connection with his credit department.

3. Wants of Prospect That Can Be Satisfied by Salesman's Goods.—This is the key to the sale and should be ascertained as fully as possible before calling. When working up the "picture"

of a prospect it is unwise to neglect any want or need the prospect has just because it seems unrelated to the salesman's product. It is truly amazing to what an extent a salesman with imagination can see a relationship between a seemingly unrelated need and his goods. Even if various needs cannot be related to the goods it is desirable to know what they are as frequently they are the cause of objections to the purchase. An auto salesman may, for example, discover that his prospect, a building contractor, must have an operation. The cost will be given as a reason for not buying an auto. But a good salesman sees that the contractor will be in a weakened condition for some time after he leaves the hospital and at the same time will need to get about, and can proceed to sell his car in terms of these facts.

Hawkins¹ emphasizes an important phase of this point when he writes:

The salesman should have in mind always the ultimate consumer of his goods, when he prospects. If you are selling to a wholesaler or to a retailer, do not prospect their needs, but the needs of their customers, first of all. Then you will know just what the dealer needs. Very likely the first of his needs will be for some actual knowledge of the conditions in his own local field. He probably won't realize the possibilities of his market. Educate yourself in needs by your prospecting; then pass on what you learn to the buyer. Thus you do him a genuine service at the outset of your relation. Always keep before you the object of true prospecting, which is *service*—the central purpose of all the steps of salesmanship.

4. Obstacles.—There is always some obstacle that prevents a want from being satisfied. To know what it is aids materially in selling, as has been pointed out repeatedly before and particularly in Chap. XVIII.

5. Objections.²—If a prospect wants to buy the salesman's commodity he will have few or no objections because he himself will find answers to his objections as they come to mind. But if he does not want to buy he will present objections, many of which are imagined while he talks. Most of these excuses are merely polite substitutes for saying, "I don't want it." The salesman must learn to handle these excuses, mainly by pretending to answer them but actually by ignoring them.

¹ HAWKINS, N., "The Selling Process," p. 128ff, 1918.

² The distinction between "obstacle" and "objection" is pointed out on p. 289.

When the prospect feels a want but does not see how the salesman's commodity will satisfy it adequately he will desire to be shown, he will raise valid objections and give reasons why the proposition is not adequate. The salesman must be prepared to answer such objections since they arise because he has not made his proposition clear or has not offered sufficient proof (see Chap. XXVII for methods of handling objections).

6. Interests, Hobbies.—At the beginning of a sales interview it is frequently advisable to discuss some topic not necessarily related to the proposition to be submitted. This transition period makes it easier for the prospect to forget what he was engaged upon and to provide an opportunity for salesman and prospect to size each other up and get acquainted. Knowledge of the prospect's interests and particularly his hobbies is very helpful in determining what to say in this transition period.

Again and again in the literature on selling one finds references to the fact that a man can be sold through his hobby when all other methods have failed. A hobby is, of course, some subject in which a man is very much interested. Naturally if it is brought up in a proper manner the prospect finds pleasure in talking about it. Tumulty¹ has related how Champ Clark was won over through appealing to his great personal interest in Thomas H. Benton, the great Missouri Senator.

I remember my first meeting him (Champ Clark) in the early part of the Wilson Administration. It was some time in 1913. The administration, naturally, wanted to be on friendly terms with Mr. Clark. He was a great Democrat, and we certainly wanted to be as friendly as possible with all of them. I was deputed to call upon him and let him understand how the Administration felt—in short, to clear away as far as possible any bitterness that might have been left over from the Baltimore convention, in which the nomination had been taken from him by a narrow margin in the eleventh hour. Before going to see him, I was told by one of his friends that the best way to get on a companionable basis with him was to talk about Thomas H. Benton, the great Missouri Senator. So I looked up Benton's book on thirty years in the United States Senate. By the time I went to keep my appointment with the Missourian, I had read the volume—which, by the way, was quite interesting enough to make me forget why I had started it.

¹ TUMULTY, J. P., "In the White House Looking Glass," *The New York Times*, Dec. 13, 1921.

Mr. Clark greeted me in a manner of distinct chilliness. He was courteous, as always, but his bow and his handshake had in them a distant dignity by no means reassuring. I sat down, determined to bring Benton into the conversation at the first possible minute. And I didn't have to wait long. My host evidently was not intending to bestow upon me any superfluous words. He provided the needed silence at the very beginning.

"Mr. Speaker," I said, "one of the most fascinating books in the world was written by a great man from your state."

He looked at me interrogatively.

"Yes," I resumed, "Thomas H. Benton's autobiography."

Rather a bald way of introducing my topic, perhaps. But he did not appear to notice anything abrupt about it. His eyes lighted up. He positively smiled.

All went smoothly after that. He talked about the book, quoted from it at length, and told various stories about Benton that were not in the autobiography. Our mutual friend had been right. Benton was an idol of Champ Clark. The ice was broken, and the visit ended satisfactorily.

7. Personal Characteristics.—There are many widely advertised systems for sizing up the prospect, through the use of some method of judging his character in terms of his features, color of hair, eyes, length of fingers, style of handwriting, etc. At the present time there is no system that will accomplish what is claimed for it as has been proved by many careful investigations.¹ And even if such systems were capable of determining how tactful, or industrious, or quick-tempered a person is, which they are not, it would be the rare salesman who could adjust his sales talk so as to appeal in just the correct way to a tactful man and then to a tactless man.

¹ Possibly the two most widely read and accepted books today advocating character analysis are BLACKFORD, K., "Analyzing Character," 1916, and "The Job, the Man, the Boss," 1919. The following present various scientifically conducted investigations in this field:

ADAMS, H. F., "The Mythology and Science of Character Analysis and Psychology Goldbricks," *Scribners*, vol. 69, pp. 569-575, and vol. 70, pp. 94-101, 1921.

HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., "Vocational Psychology," 1916.

HOLLINGWORTH, H. L., "Judging Human Character," 1923.

KORNHAUSER, A. W., and KINGSBURY, F. A., "Psychological Tests in Industry," 1924.

LINK, H. C., "Employment Psychology," chap. XIX, 1919.

PATTERSON, D. G., and LUDGATE, K. E., "Blond and Brunette Traits," *Journal of Personnel Research*, July, 1922.

Such information as can be used, under the heading of personal characteristics can be obtained in a personal interview or from the prospect's associates. His daily habits are useful to know. They determine the best time to see him. Whether he is really as gruff as he seems is worth-while information to have when one is rebuffed, for some men with the biggest of hearts have a most frightening manner toward strangers.

But after all is said on the subject of personal characteristics the main thing to remember is that the key to the person's interest is what he wants. If that is properly called to his mind he will provide time for the interview.

MANY SALESMEN MUST BE TRAINED TO GET "PICTURES" OF PROSPECTS

The writer has personally handled a number of salesmen who seem to be utterly unable to go out and secure the "picture" of half-a-dozen prospects, yet in the course of several weeks will pick up this information without knowing how they did it. These salesmen were all better than average salesmen but they were apparently unable to approach their prospects until they knew a good deal about them. Once they learned how systematically to obtain this information they greatly increased their sales, just because they obtained in this way many more complete pictures of prospects.

There are many salesmen of this type who should be taken in hand by their sales managers and taught this essential element of their work.

Prospect Cards.—Many salesmen find prospect cards a great aid to systematic development of "pictures" of prospects (see Fig. 51 for an example). The blank spaces remind the salesman that he lacks certain information, and help him keep it in mind so that when he meets those who know the prospect he asks the necessary questions.

Salesman's Daily Reports.—The daily reports required of salesmen by many companies accomplish the same aim as that of prospect cards. A salesman who has to fill out a report such as required by the Gainaday Company (see Fig. 52) must of necessity come to know a great deal about his prospects which

But many a cold canvass salesman secures a good deal of information about the people next door before leaving the last house. Before one salesman selling to contractors started work he strolled around town visiting the various houses and buildings under construction and chatted for a few minutes with workmen, foremen, and the contractors themselves. It was amazing the mass of detailed information he picked up in this way. He met, moreover, many of the men with whom he wished to deal.

A salesman discovered that one member of a board of directors was opposing his proposition—in fact, he was reported to be very antagonistic because of a personal row with his predecessor. The salesman instructed his office boy to spend the afternoon getting acquainted with the prospect's office boy and to find out all he could about the man. Then he arranged for a luncheon, and utilizing the information he had secured kept the prospect talking about his high school and college days, plans for educating his boy and girl, and so on. Before the luncheon was over the two developed the basis for a friendship that has lasted for years. Just as they parted, the salesman said, "You know I am going to appear before your board tomorrow. I am sure that if I can make my proposition clear you will all want it. It's going to be a great help to me to know one of you personally. It was for that I asked you to luncheon."

King¹ has reported how he gets information regarding merchants' scales before he attempts to sell them his line. Upon entering a store he explains to the proprietor that he is representing the Toledo Scale Company and that he is testing, free of charge, all scales regardless of makes. He then shows him his audit form and explains that although a scale may cut the line on zero it may not register correctly at other points.

King then writes the name of the town on his blank, the merchant's name, and then asks for the serial number of the scale. This request forces the merchant to come over to the scale in order to read it off.

After adjusting the scale at zero, if it is not already so adjusted, King shows his government certificate that his test weights are

¹ KING, H. L., "Reading the Merchants' Scales," *The Toledo System*; reprinted in *Printers' Ink*, June 8, 1922.

absolutely correct. He describes the remainder of his procedure as follows:

I then put on a weight. If the scale is slow I record the fact and then tell the merchant that I would like to show him how much he is really losing on the first pound. The scale is generally near the stock of sugar, cookies, etc., so I weigh out a pound of merchandise on his scale (he is right beside me and watches this operation). I then take the pound from his scale and put it on my 405, and as there is such a difference between the ounce graduations on the one and on the other, the amount over as shown on the 405 generally starts things going.

I use small cookies wherever available and I lay to one side those he loses on each weighing on his scale, and before I get to 10 pounds there are generally quite a few cookies in the pile to represent what he would have lost. This merchandise (representing loss), which he can plainly see, makes it so much easier to fill out the bottom portion of the audit slip. He thoroughly realizes that he has lost that much merchandise in ten or twenty drafts and it is highly reasonable to him that if he makes fifty or one hundred drafts a day, his loss will be multiplied in comparison.

After I have filled out the lower part of the audit slip and have shown him how much it costs him to operate this scale each year, he must agree with me, because I have shown him how much he would have lost had the merchandise been weighed out to customers on his scale.

I then take the merchandise he has lost and weigh it on my 405 and ask him how much it is per pound. It is usually very easy to show him that his old scale is costing him money . . .

I really cannot cite you one instance, where I have had the opportunity to give the audit form a real workout, that it has been difficult to close a sale.

The sales manager of a well-known product used in interior finish of buildings starts out to study his prospects in this manner. Upon hearing, for example, that the First National Bank is to be remodeled and so may possibly be in the market for his product, he looks up in the *Directory of Directors* to find out who are the officers and directors of this bank. Next he looks up each of these men to ascertain their other business connections. In the case of this particular bank the sales manager finds that among the twelve directors there are three who are already very familiar with his company and its product. Mr. Lough, for one, is vice-president of a large corporation that has bought his product at various times during the last ten years. Mr. Bell is auditor of a large steel company, and Mr. Park is president of another steel company; and it is from these two companies that the sales

manager's company buys most of the steel it uses. With this information the sales manager's representative approaches these three directors with the assurance that they will be interested. After interviewing them he finds it relatively easy to approach the remaining officials.

Thousands of illustrations of this sort can be obtained from magazines on selling and the personal experiences of salesmen. They illustrate the multiplicity of ways in which information can be obtained. They illustrate also that the wideawake salesman with imagination has little trouble in finding ways to fill out his "picture" of a prospect.

In a Retail Store.—The salesman in a retail store does not have to locate his prospects. Instead they come to him. And in doing so they usually indicate an interest in his goods. The customer may have definitely in mind just what he wants to buy; or he may have a general idea of what is wanted without having decided concerning the details; or he may have in mind something that he will need before long and merely drop in to see what is for sale; or he may come into the store, or into the salesman's department, with no intention of buying anything at all.

To handle the customer properly it is necessary to size him up and ascertain what he wants and how best to appeal to him. Off hand, this seems difficult. It is surprising, however, how much a good salesman can ascertain by the time he has asked a question or two.

From the way a customer walks in, one can tell fairly well whether he is "decided" or not, also whether self-confident or not, and also whether nervous, shy, and timid or not. In a similar way the salesman can tell to some extent whether the customer wants to buy or merely to look around, from his general manner; also as to whether he is familiar with the goods or not. Speaking of women customers one writer states:

If her lip curls or if she frowns or shrugs her shoulders, she is probably dissatisfied. When she is pleased or satisfied her whole face lights up, her eyes have a different gleam, and the muscles of her face relax. If she draws the goods toward her or keeps her hands on it while she looks at something else, something about it has evidently caught her fancy. If she looks at the goods closely or goes back to it repeatedly she is undoubtedly interested in it. You can judge somewhat the points she is most interested in by noticing whether she looks at the price tag, or examines the seams or stitching

carefully, or rubs the material between her fingers, or holds the article up to her to see how it looks on her. "If they are interested" states an expert salesman, "they examine closely and attentively what is shown them, their eyes light up, they look up at you frankly, keeping their gaze on either the goods or your face, and they nod their heads. On the other hand, lack of interest or intelligence is shown when their expression remains blank and their eyes dull. They look all around 'as if their minds were miles off,' and they let the article lie where you put it." ¹

The tone of voice and the language used indicate fairly well whether the customer is refined and well-bred or not, whether pleasant or disagreeable, and whether an American or a foreigner. From the customer's clothes, particularly in the case of women, the salesman can obtain clues as to what she will want as regarding quality, taste, and style, for a customer is apt to buy articles in harmony with what she has already bought. On the other hand, price cannot be determined so well, for many well-dressed persons buy cheap articles and poorly dressed men and women buy some expensive articles. What is appropriate in the way of clothing is determined by the customer's general appearance. But if the prospect does not like the salesman's selection such estimates have to be discarded.

In addition to sizing up the customer it is necessary for the salesman to ascertain just what the customer wants. There are four general ways of doing this: by asking questions; by displaying goods before asking questions; by listening to customer's questions and comments; and by watching her expressions and actions as she looks at merchandise. It is advisable to ask questions in order: (1) to start a sale; (2) to narrow down the possibilities of the goods to be shown; (3) to coax an opinion from a customer who talks little; and (4) to obtain information which may enable the salesman to help the customer make up her mind about the goods. There is a danger, however, in asking too many questions, for, as a result, the article may be so definitely described that there will be nothing in stock to meet the requirements. Therefore, it seems best to ask as few questions as possible, and questions like, "Would you like sterling or plated silver?"

The salesman can often discover, in the second place, what the customer wants by displaying goods before asking questions.

¹"Technique of Selling," The Research Bureau for Retail Training, Pittsburgh, 1922.

He can do this when the customer has picked up an article and is looking at it closely, by showing other articles of about the same kind and saying, "We have that in a dark blue, too. Did you see it?" In the more usual case, the customer immediately announces what she wants. Then it is important that the salesman pay attention to what was said and show what was asked for and not most everything at hand as though the customer had not expressed any preference.

Everything that a customer says and does is important. One expert saleswoman expressed the point in this way:

If she has told me the particular point she is looking for, then I know what to talk up when I show her the article. If she doesn't say, then I watch to note whether she looks first at the grade of goods, or the style, or the way it is trimmed. I go then by her questions, her comments when she tries it on, and the points she seems most interested in.

Another saleswoman says in this connection:

The way she looks at the goods, what she asks and says about them, how she talks to her friends about them—all of these tell you a lot. You find out in this way which articles she is most attracted by, which ones she would like but thinks she can't afford, and which ones she definitely doesn't care for. Then you know what else to show her, and also how to talk up the ones she likes best, and so go ahead with the sale.

Questions

Mr. Q., a salesman, received the following letter from the assistant sales manager of his company sent through Mr. Q's district manager:

"In preparing the program for the Sectional Conference we have you scheduled for a fifteen-minute address on the second day, on the subject of 'The Study of the Prospect.'

"These meetings, as you know, are designed largely to aid the new men in our ranks and to stimulate and educate many of those who have not yet acquired the knowledge and technic they should have to make a success in the work. One of the salesman's greatest problems is the study of his fellow-men. The average young man hardly gives it a thought and can only tell as years go by through, sometimes, bitter experience, how certain men react under certain conditions. Carlyle tells us, 'The greatest study of mankind is man,' and the more we observe the more we realize that the major benefit that comes through years of experience in the selling business, develops through contact with men and through actual observation of how men act and react under any and all conditions . . .

"As one of our old guard in the business, we feel sure the subject will be well taken care of in your hands. We trust that you will acknowledge this

letter and accept the assignment at your first convenience. If we may take the liberty of suggesting, we should like to have you write your paper and then commit it as far as possible to memory or transpose it to notes, as we feel that by so doing one creates more interest and talks to the gathering with a closer appeal than by reading from the written page. Please be sure and confine yourself to the allotted time as outlined above."

Prepare a fifteen-minute paper such as requested of Mr. Q.

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CHAPTER XXV

DETERMINATION OF SALES STRATEGY

Every salesman analyzes his prospects; develops a sales strategy; and plans what to say in order to "put it over."

But the majority of salesmen do this without knowing how they do it. They have learned to sell through experience. Their process of learning has been like that in learning to swim. What they found did not work they ceased to do; what they found successful they continued to do. The whys and wherefores have not bothered them. Out of this haphazard method of learning have come many first-class salesmen, many not so successful, and a multitude of failures.

A new era is upon us. Haphazard methods are going by the board. They are going because competition is forcing them out. One of the resulting changes is with regard to the training of salesmen. Already many companies are giving this subject some attention. A smaller number have developed fairly complete methods. But scientific methods are only now being employed in selecting and training salesmen.

Genuine analysis and careful planning must more and more replace intuition and playing hunches. Because in some cases a one best sales presentation can be developed, it will be the function of the sales manager to work out this best method and then teach it to all his salesmen. Usually in such cases low-grade salesmen can be profitably used. But in other cases a one best sales presentation cannot be developed because of the great variety of prospects and the varying combinations of their needs for the different articles in the salesman's lines. In such cases it will be more profitable to employ a higher grade of salesman. Every salesman will have to learn to analyze his job in a more thoroughgoing way than is customarily done today.

The changes that are taking place may be illustrated in the case of selling motor truck tires.

These have been largely sold on price: first cost and silver-tongued oratory usually landed the order. A certain company, in contrast, has turned its salesmen into "transportation engineers." They begin work on a new prospect by getting in touch with his truck drivers, or garage foremen. Information is obtained about the number of miles covered by each truck, the kind and quantity of loads hauled, number of daily trips, operating costs, and repair bills. Very often accurate costs are not kept, and a cost system is recommended. Several months' intermittent work may be necessary before the salesman is ready to go to the purchasing agent. When he appears, however, he is talking technically about something of vital interest—the cost of hauling in that business, with recommendations for decreasing the tire expense. By turning the salesman into a technical adviser, the idea of buying by price alone is eliminated, and purchases made according to mileage and service costs.¹

Because analysis is not possible without knowledge it is necessary that a salesman shall know:

1. His goods and the service his company renders.
2. His prospects and their wants and needs.
3. Efficient selling methods.

In terms of this knowledge the salesman must determine:

1. The sales strategy for each prospect.
2. The sales presentation, *i.e.*, what must be presented to "put over" the sales strategy.

The view held here is that selling is not pouring ideas into a prospect's mind; it is solving with him a problem which he wants solved (although he may not have been aware of it until the salesman called), and which can be solved by the purchase of the salesman's goods.

DETERMINATION OF SALES STRATEGY

A proper sales strategy can be expressed by the three words: Wants, Obstacle, Solution. In more detail it can be outlined as follows:

I. Wants.

1. Just what are the wants of the prospect?
2. Just how strongly does the prospect desire to satisfy each of them?

II. Obstacles.

¹ EASTMAN, R. O., "Finding Out Facts about Business," *Printers' Ink Monthly*, July, 1921.

1. Just what obstacles prevent the prospect from satisfying his wants?

2. Just how clearly does the prospect comprehend these obstacles?

III. Solution.

1. What specific proposition will remove the obstacles and give the prospect what he wants? (In other words, what quality or quantity, or model or specific service is to be presented as the solution?)

Obviously, the more strongly a prospect feels a want the more the salesman can build his sale upon it; the less strongly a prospect feels a want the less the salesman can utilize it until he has aroused it. Similarly, the more clearly the prospect understands what prevents him from satisfying a want the less it needs to be discussed. But if the prospect does not know what is wrong, what the obstacle is, the salesman must force comprehension of that obstacle upon him before he can go on to present his commodity as a solution.

EXAMPLES OF SALES STRATEGY

Selling an Automatic Electric Generator.—The “picture” of the prospect in this case is given on page 383. This is a particularly complete picture of a possible buyer and includes more detail than can usually be obtained, but not more than can often be secured by one who is wideawake and actively seeking such data.¹

The *wants* of Mr. Acre:

1. To provide for, protect, and please his wife. (Apparently very strong.)

2. To be recognized as a leader in his community. (Apparently quite strong.)

3. To secure approval. (Apparently not so strong as in many men, *i.e.*, what others do and say does not influence him greatly.)

4. To avoid drudgery. (Like the average man.)

5. To keep his son with him on the farm.

6. To provide good working conditions so as not to lose his hired men. (Probably as strong as in most farmers.)

¹ The information presented here was obtained by my former colleague, Mr. H. W. McIntyre, from the salesman who sold Mr. Acre.

7. To be free from worry about fire.

8. To save money.

The *obstacles*, which prevent him from satisfying these wants and which, of course, can be eliminated by the purchase of an electric generator, are:

1. An old-fashioned house and barn, devoid of modern conveniences.

2. No electricity.

Mr. Acre has always lived in his home and so is accustomed to all the inconveniences around a house and farm which might be eliminated through the use of electricity and electrically driven machinery. He has not comprehended them nor associated them with his wants. Consequently they must be brought to his attention before he will desire to eliminate them.

The *solution* is the salesman's electric generator. It will supply electricity and so make possible many conveniences around the house and barn, and these will satisfy the above wants. The generator must accordingly be presented as a device to do the following:

1. Save Mr. Acre's wife the drudgery of pumping and carrying water.

2. Enable his wife to cook by electricity on hot, stuffy days.

3. Enable his wife to clean the house with an electric vacuum cleaner.

4. Eliminate most of the drudgery of washing clothes.

5. Supply a modern, sanitary toilet.

6. Give good light to read by at night and save the smelly job of filling kerosene lamps.

7. Eliminate the inconvenience of carrying lanterns to the barn, etc.

8. Save himself and his men the drudgery of pumping water for the stock.

9. Save the drudgery of milking by installing a milking machine.

10. Save the drudgery of turning the grindstone.

11. Save the drudgery of sawing wood.

12. Protect the house and barn from danger of fire from an upset lantern or lamp.

13. Provide a good stream of water in case of fire.

14. Eliminate gossip about a farmer who does not provide his family with modern conveniences (to be very indirectly insinuated).

Selling Life Insurance.—Let us note how three different “pictures” of prospects lead naturally to three different sales strategies.

Chapter III contains a sales transaction between Bagley and the dentist, Dr. Barnes. Ignoring the interview here and using only the “picture” of the prospect, the following can be deduced:

Wants of Dr. Barnes:

1. To send his boy to college, preferably to Wesleyan.
2. To provide that his boy will get the most possible out of his college life.
3. To protect his wife from worry and personal sacrifice.
4. To obtain approval from his son, daughters, wife, and friends.

Obstacle.—What stood in the way of all these wants being satisfied and could be eliminated by the salesman’s service was the contingency of dying before the boy finished college.¹ Like most men in good health, Barnes was giving no consideration to this contingency; he was not aware of any flaw in his plans. But he was planning and working and looking forward to the time when his boy would enter college.

Solution.—Insurance so planned that the boy would receive sufficient money each half-year to put him through college if his father died.

Consider, second, the prospect to whom Judson sold (see Chap. IV). Here is a prospect, aged thirty-eight, who is married (wife, aged thirty-five); has a son six years old and a daughter four years old, both in good health. He owns his home, mortgage of \$4,500. He is planning to send his son to college. Probably

¹ Bagley was selling only life insurance. If he had also been selling accident insurance then the contingency of Barnes’ being injured in an accident might have been added to the list of obstacles to be overcome. And some salesmen might have sold further insurance as protection to the family by setting up the possibility of Mrs. Barnes losing the money she had just inherited in a poor investment. But this would have been a difficult obstacle to establish in Barnes’ mind.

he has insurance, but the amount is unknown; what is carried probably is payable in lump sum at death.

Wants of this prospect:

1. To protect his wife from financial worry and trouble the rest of her life.
2. To give his children a good education and to give them a good start in life.
3. To make sure that his family always has at least the necessities of life.

Obstacles:

1. Contingency of prospect's death. But the more insurance prospect has the more he will be convinced that this obstacle has been eliminated and so he will really feel no interest in discussing the matter.

2. The practical certainty that his wife will lose most of the lump-sum insurance money now assured to her. As soon as this idea is comprehended by Mr. Prospect then the feeling that his wants are provided for is eliminated; he is back again in the position he was in before he bought any insurance. In many respects this obstacle is the key to the sale just because it arouses deep concern over what will become of his family if he should die.

Solution.—Judson secures additional information about Prospect's family and financial situation. In terms of it he outlines a program whereby \$7,000 of his present insurance will be used to pay off the mortgage and to clean up his estate after his death. The remainder of his present insurance will be converted to "income" insurance. This, together with new insurance, will provide \$250 per month for twenty years and \$100 per month thereafter as long as Mrs. Prospect lives.

Now consider a third prospect, Mr. Alderson by name.¹ This prospect is a wholesale shoe merchant, firm rating—\$100,000, personal wealth—\$500,000. He is about fifty years old, married, has two children, daughter eighteen, son ten. He is direct, or of the Faithful Trust Company and the Round Tube Works of Pittsburgh. Active member of the Episcopal Church. Member of House Committee, P—Golf Club, D—Club, Chamber of Commerce, and interested in Salvation Army and School

¹ See the writer's, "Psychology of Selling Life Insurance," lesson II, for the complete sales presentation.

for Blind. Has traveled extensively in America and Europe. Spends summer at seashore and is said to be a great fisherman. Said to be easy of access, but very hard to get an interview with if he is not already interested in the matter to be submitted. Reported as courteous, even-tempered, dignified, but firm and quick in his decisions. Has been solicited by many insurance agents but is not known to carry any insurance.

A likely assumption is that Alderson has left his estate in trust for his family, since he is a director of a trust company. He accordingly is already convinced that his family will be well taken care of in the event of his death. (If the estate is not left in trust then all of the contingencies possible to a large estate are present and can be played up as obstacles to be eliminated.)

Wants of Alderson.—On paper they are about the same as outlined above for Mr. Prospect.

Obstacles:

1. Contingency of death. As already stated, this can have but little weight because of his trustee estate plans.

2. Possibility of loss to his family through the mismanagement of his trustee estate. (Frankly, the possibility of this loss is remote, but such losses do occur.) This obstacle is the key to the sale. Unless this possibility of loss is made clear, the prospect will not be convinced that his wants are not all provided for.

Solution.—\$100,000 of insurance as a minimum of protection and an absolute certainty, if his trustee estate should be lost.

These three cases illustrate three somewhat different sales strategies and they illustrate how such differing sales strategies are to be deduced from the "picture" of the prospect. A salesman who tried to sell any one of these prospects in terms of the sales strategies designed for the other two prospects would in all probability fail. Since the sales strategy used upon Alderson was published the writer has received several communications telling how certain wealthy men had been sold on the basis of this plan.

Over against the view presented here there is the practice of many salesmen who talk about life insurance with no idea of how they sell, and of other salesmen who use only one sales strategy trying it out on every prospect they meet. Their sales

result very largely from those cases where the prospect happens to fit their sales talk. But it is the exceptional salesman who fits his presentation to his prospects.

DETERMINATION OF THE SALES PRESENTATION

The sales strategy settled, the salesman must, second, determine what he must present to his prospect in order that the sales objective will be reached. Such planning involves answering the following questions:

1. What must I present to make him strongly feel his *wants*?
2. What must I present to make him clearly understand the *obstacles* to his wants?
3. What must I present to convince him that my proposition is an *adequate solution*?
4. If competition is met, what must I present to convince him my proposition is the *best solution*?
5. In what *sequence* shall I present my remarks?

Selling Dr. Barnes.—In a preceding section the sales strategy necessary to sell Dr. Barnes has been outlined. What shall be the preparation for “putting over” this sales strategy?

1. *What Will Make Dr. Barnes Strongly Feel His Wants?*—Get Barnes to talk about his boy, about his boy going to college, about his Alma Mater, about his own experiences at college, about the value of a college education. (Positive aspect of the want. See Chap. III, lines 15 to 36 for details as to how these items were handled.)

Cause Barnes to realize the dissatisfaction which would result if any of his desires were blocked—negative aspect of the want—namely, his boy might not get a college education, or his wife might have to sacrifice to put him through college, or he might have to work his way through and thereby lose some of the real advantages of the college life (lines 49 to 88). Hint at the fact that people will not respect Barnes if he fails to send his boy to college, using story of Dr. Kellar and other stories if necessary (lines 89 to 102).

2. *What Will Make Dr. Barnes Clearly Understand the Present Obstacle to His Wants?*—Cause Barnes to consider just what effect his death would have upon his plans. Make him realize that one father out of five does not live; that men he knew, who were in

good health, have died with little or no warning (lines 89 to 102). (As in this sale, so in many others, the negative and obstacle aspects of the want can be considered together.)

3. *What Will Convince Dr. Barnes That the Proposition is an Adequate Solution?*—Get Barnes to estimate the cost of sending his boy to college; get him to state how much the boy will need each 6 months; show him how the insurance company can send a check for that amount just when it is needed (lines 100 to 119). Tell him of several instances where this has been done—preferably about men he has known. (In the interview given in Chap. III such instances are not given, because they were not needed. The salesman undoubtedly had such “ammunition” in reserve.)

Show Barnes the plan will save his wife from all worry and personal sacrifice; that if he does not die, the money he has paid in is not lost; that he will get a lot of genuine satisfaction from knowing that his plans are now absolutely guaranteed (lines 120 to 167).

4. *What Will Convince Dr. Barnes That the Proposition is the Best Solution?*—A salesman must always be prepared to meet competition—he must always be prepared to show how his proposition is superior to that of other salesmen. But nothing is gained by presenting any of this “ammunition” unless the prospect demands comparisons with other salesman’s propositions. In this sale Barnes started such a discussion (lines 168 to 170). But the salesman headed it off in one sentence (lines 171 to 172). Had Barnes pressed the matter, the salesman’s answer would have been based upon knowledge of the details of his own and his competitor’s policies.

5. *In What Sequence Shall the Above Items Be Presented?*—The best rule to follow is to present first the item that the prospect is judged to be most interested in. Here that item was judged to be “the boy—the boy going to college.” The remaining items should ordinarily follow along in such sequence as to establish in the mind of the prospect, first the want, second the obstacle, and third the solution. But when a prospect believes his wants are already satisfied, the best sequence is to establish the obstacle first, the wants second, and solution third. (Note how Judson used this sequence in Chap. IV.) How to start and close a sale is discussed in detail in Chaps. XXVI and XXVII.

Objections.—Most authorities stress preparation for handling objections. This is most important. But it is still more important to plan to convince the prospect that the salesman's proposition is an *adequate* solution and, if comparisons are forced, that it is the *best* solution.

Seldom is a battle, or sale, won by remaining on the defensive. The salesman, like the general, must take the offensive if he would win. And this means actively convincing the prospect that the solution is adequate, and the best one. Planning for this will, of course, take into account objections that are likely to come up. But such planning as stressed here, will do more than answer objections after they are uttered, it will anticipate such objections and will answer them before they are thought of definitely.

Chapter XXVII will be anticipated to the extent of stating that every salesman should know every objection that is likely to be made to his proposition and have at his tongue's end several answers to each. But it must be emphasized again that in order to sell he must go beyond merely answering objections—he must definitely convince his prospect that his solution will give him what he wants. A sale is not likely to be accomplished by discussing objectionable features.

EXAMPLES FROM ADVERTISING

Advertising Yarn to Women.—A few years ago a certain company emphasized "quality" in advertising its yarn. As the result of a consumer's analysis it was ascertained: first, that the great bulk of yarn was bought by women to knit sweaters; second, that women very frequently underestimated the amount needed and that they often found it impossible to secure more of exactly the same color; and third, that women were far more interested in the beauty of the finished sweater than the quality aspects of yarn.

Here is expressed the want for sweaters, beautiful sweaters. The obstacles are lack of money to buy sweaters, inability to buy desirable sweaters, lack of yarn to use in knitting sweaters—all solved by the company's product. In addition is the further obstacle, inability to match already used yarn with new yarn, due to poorly standardized production. The solution is standardized yarn.

What shall be presented in the advertising? First of all sweaters and sweaters displayed in color. The advertising campaign has accordingly stressed one sweater after another in color. And half of the copy consists of detailed directions for making them up. Second, the yarns have been shown in color and the reader has been assured that the color is fast. Third in importance, are the quality aspects of the yarn.

The change in strategy has resulted in a very satisfactory increase in business.

Advertising Automobile Insurance.—A mutual auto insurance company was stressing its low rates. At the end of each year it refunded to its policyholders a considerable amount which represented a decided saving over many other policies. But a consumer analysis showed that cost was not the most important element. First of all, the buyer wanted to be saved the trouble of appearing in court, if he had an accident, and he wanted the affair settled without delay. Second, he wanted to be absolutely sure the company would save him this trouble; he wanted to be sure it would not go bankrupt just when he had an accident. And third, after he had secured these two, he was interested in getting the service as cheaply as possible.

Advertisements were accordingly prepared showing illustrations of accidents; headings emphasized "settled without delay—settled out of court," and the copy stressed this thought. In order to establish confidence in the company the entire list of directors was given in a column at one side of the advertisement together with their business connections. And at the bottom of this column appeared a few figures as to the size of the company, financially speaking. The "30 per cent refund" appeal was relegated in most advertisements to the latter part of the copy instead, as formerly, of appearing in the heading.

Here again the change in strategy resulted in a very satisfactory increase in business.

Questions

1. What is the distinction between "sales strategy" and "sales presentation?"

2. Give *in detail*: (a) the "picture" of some prospect with whom you are familiar; (b) the sales strategy; and (c) the sales presentation (appeals) which are necessary in your estimation in order to sell him some commodity

or service with which you are familiar, as, for example: real estate in a new addition; a \$2,000 auto to a man who is only figuring on a \$1,000 car; life insurance as a career; sending son to a private school; an advertising program for a bank in the local newspaper, etc.

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CHAPTER XXVI

STARTING THE INTERVIEW

It is a mistaken notion that the salesman does all the work in selling. Selling is a good deal like checkers. A man wins if he can carry out his own plan and block his opponent's schemes.

THE STRATEGY OF THE PROSPECT

The prospect divides those who call upon him into two classes—clients and others. Clients are always welcome, even though they come at an inopportune time. They are welcome because they represent more business.

No such welcome is ready for those in the second class. The prospect would gladly exclude all those who are not clients from his office, for, in the main, they come there to get something from him. But for a variety of reasons he never dares exclude them all.

Every business man receives callers who come from his home town, or are friends of his friends, or belong to the same club or business association. To exclude them would be to hurt the feelings of some friend. He also receives strangers who promise to impart valuable information of one sort or another. From experience, he has learned also that some prospective clients are close-mouthed and will not reveal the object of their visit until they have had a chance to size him up and find him to their liking. To exclude such men means a loss of business. It is better to take a chance on wasting time in seeing people than to turn away a possible opportunity.

The chief desire of any prospect is, accordingly, to size up the stranger and his proposition as quickly as possible. If the proposition is uninteresting the whole strategy of the prospect is to get rid of the caller. But because few men wish to be known as discourteous their aim is not only to dismiss the visitor but to do it pleasantly.

Business men who are sure of themselves and are able to dismiss others quickly and easily are usually easy to reach. But those who cannot get rid of callers readily are most likely to set up barriers in the form of secretaries. They really have to do this or they would have little or no time to devote to their own affairs.

The significance of this to the salesman is: *The secret of success in securing an interview is to behave like a man whom a prospect would not want to exclude.*

SECURING THE INTERVIEW

In any treatise on this subject all phases of securing an interview must be considered. Those cases where great difficulty is experienced naturally require more space than those where no difficulty is experienced. Because of this a false impression is given. The beginner thinks that securing an interview is a difficult and complicated procedure. But this is not a correct conception. In the majority of cases all there is for a man to do is to walk in, ask for the man he wants to see, then go up to him and start talking. Even when the interview must be secured through the auspices of an office boy or telephone operator, all that is necessary is to give the name of the prospect and then his own name. Only in a relatively small percentage of cases is anything more required.

The remainder of this section considers what to do when a straightforward request is not sufficient.

Confidence.—The most important asset a man can have in securing an interview is confidence in himself. The next most important asset is the ability to act like a man of importance. As has been seen in the preceding section, it is the man of importance who is confident of his right to see the prospect whom the prospect and his subordinates do not dare to exclude.

All this is easy to say. But how can a man obtain confidence and how can he acquire a manner of consequence?

The salesman must dress the part. It is surprising to note that many men who ought to know better overlook this important detail. Proper dress includes good clothes, well-pressed and brushed, shined shoes, a clean hat and collar, and a good necktie. It also includes clean hands and face, a recent haircut, and a

daily shave. It excludes the flashy. For anything that attracts attention to itself distracts the prospect from what is to be said.

Observation of successful and prominent men will aid one in acquiring the proper manner.

But though dress and manner help very materially, they do not make the man. They must be vitalized by self-confidence. How shall a man become so confident?

First of all by *knowing*, not hoping, that he can be of service to the prospect. Knowledge rests on facts. As has been repeatedly pointed out already, the salesman must know what the *needs* of his prospect are. And knowing them he must understand how his goods will supply those needs (see Chap. XIV for further details).

Second, the salesman must not be afraid of the prospect. Every man dreads to meet strangers, at least until he has learned how to overcome this very natural tendency. Some men never get over this fear of others; they suffer throughout life. But those who are successful learn to conceal their emotion, to down it, and go ahead regardless of it. It is related of John Hay, one of our greatest Secretaries of State, that:

Speech-making, even when he had his manuscript before him, was always an ordeal. In composing, he alternated between buoyancy and depression; first, the hot fit, when ideas flamed into his mind; then, the cold fit, when he read over what he had written and the words seemed gray and black and cold. He suffered by anticipation the misery of stage-fright. But once on the platform, although nervous to the end, he rarely failed to win the audience. This success came always as a surprise to him, and he used to chronicle it in his notes to his friends, not out of conceit, but as a bit of unexpected news which might surprise them too. "Luckily," he once said, "the shakes go to my knees and not to my voice."¹

John Hay is typical of the many who always suffer when contemplating speaking before a crowd or meeting a stranger, but nevertheless learn to control themselves so well that others never suspect their dread. Roosevelt is typical of those others who gain control of their emotions and cease to fear a stranger. There is no royal road to success in this respect. Each one must learn from one experience after another this form of self-control.

The writer is reminded of one of his former students in life insurance salesmanship. For three years after taking the course

¹ THAYER, W. R., "Life and Letters of John Hay," vol. I, p. 431ff.

this young man sold so little insurance he was rated a failure and his lack of success was on several occasions referred to as proof that training a salesman was useless. But the young man persevered. And he developed in personality very markedly. This year he is making quite a record, and there is little doubt but that he will soon stand near the top in his profession. His success is largely due to hard work. As he came to know his subject he developed confidence. Because of his confidence he is now able to meet men of affairs and to impress them.

This dread of salesmen, that makes them so loathe to enter an office or call at the next house, is not fear such as is felt toward a bear or a desperado, but it is timidity over meeting an unknown man and having to contend for mastery. It is instinctive for each one to dominate certain persons as he meets them, and to be submissive to others (see Chap. X). But the salesman must dominate more or less in order to sell. And this means he must strive to dominate many men toward whom he would naturally be submissive. This is unnatural—causes emotional strain, and, because failure often results, dread is experienced when the next encounter is planned.

The man who is naturally shy and retiring has probably no business attempting the work of a salesman. Even if he learns to sell he will suffer too much ever to enjoy his work. The man who is naturally dominating enjoys meeting people and mastering them. If there is a class who are born salesmen they are of this type. The average man can learn how to handle himself if he keeps at it long enough, and he can come to enjoy his work. There is no question of this.

To a considerable extent the dominating man is one who feels physically strong and active and whose bearing suggests all this to those he meets. Daily exercise and freedom from drugs and liquor are aids in this respect. But intellectual ability and mental vigor are also factors. Alexander the Great, Napoleon, and Nelson were all small men, yet they were great leaders. And wherever a man may turn in daily life he meets men who dominate because they have thought out what they are going to do and allow no obstacle to stand in their way.

Every man loses his confidence at times; goes stale, it is said. A rest or change in occupation frequently is all that is necessary to

make him again "rarin' to go." Sometimes this slump is due to the fact that business conditions are bad and he has met an unusual amount of discouragement. Confidence, remember, grows with success, and when there has been little success it is natural to lose confidence. Often the reading of a stimulating novel or biography of some great man is a real help; as also is associating with friends who bring out the best in one. And frequently a salesman can regain renewed zeal by calling upon his satisfied customers. Their enthusiasm is a real tonic.

Handling Subordinates.—Every subordinate that stands between the salesman and the prospect has been instructed by the prospect to exclude certain people, to admit others, and to bring information about the remainder to him for final decision as to whether they shall be admitted or not. Each of these subordinates must be won just as the prospect must be won when he is finally reached. If the office boy, for example, is impressed by the salesman, his manner and his remarks will express his favorable impression to the prospect; if he takes a dislike to the salesman he can announce him as, "Mr. Blank to see you. Looks kind'a like a book agent." Recognizing the responsibility each subordinate has and showing full respect for their work helps to win their favor for the salesman. The remark to a telephone girl, "You have a lot of responsibility deciding who ought to see the boss," nearly always brings a smile for it is an indirect compliment. Similar comments to office boys and women employees help to make them feel friendly and so to take a personal interest in the matter. After two or three failures to see a prospect, a direct appeal asking for the help of the subordinate sometimes works wonders. The asking of a favor is always a diplomatic way of recognizing importance.

Secretaries are instructed to learn the business of callers. That does not warrant them, however, in assuming the right to transact business in their employer's stead. The secretary is careful not to exceed his authority usually. When he asks questions of a salesman, the salesman should remember why the queries are put. They should not be resented. Such as are proper, which are asked to protect the big man from impositions, should be answered frankly and freely. It is a mistake to dodge, for that will excite the suspicion of the secretary. If a question is asked which relates to matters the salesman feels he should take up only directly with the buyer himself, the salesman

should say courteously that he wishes to speak with the big man himself on that matter.

A private secretary deals with many callers of big-man size. He will respect any salesman who presents himself with evidence that he is of the same caliber as the people the buyer is accustomed to seeing.¹

Use of a Business Card.—Opinions differ greatly with respect to the use of a card in securing an interview. Some feel the prestige of their company is a real asset and so have the name upon their card. Others use a plain card with only their name upon it. But many feel that when engaged in business a man should not use a card such as is used in social affairs. Then there are some who never present a card but if necessary write a note on a piece of paper. These men, however, usually have a regular business card to leave with the prospect at the close of the interview.

The disadvantage of the business card is that it often supplies the prospect with sufficient information to justify him in deciding whether he will see the salesman or not. Consequently, when the salesman has reason to believe the prospect will refuse to see him, if he guesses the nature of his business, it is best to send in a note instead of the card.

When the salesman employs the practice of sending in a note he should devote real thought to the matter. This note should arouse a want but should not indicate the solution. If it does, the prospect can decide then and there whether he desires to consider the matter. The message, "Advertising Prospect's Technical Apparatus to every scientist in the country," secured interviews wonderfully well for a representative of a technical journal. Dr. Barnes, in Chap. III, would have received, in all probability, the insurance agent, Mr. Bagley, if the latter had sent in word he wanted to talk about "a Wesleyan program."

Personal Introductions.—When the profit per unit of sale is large, the salesman can afford to spend the necessary time to meet the prospect first of all in a social way. Many men value their connection with a country club, fraternal order, or business association because it affords them this opportunity. One assistant sales manager is scheduled to play golf three afternoons a week for this very purpose. Others make a regular business of getting a

¹ HAWKINS, N., "The Selling Process," chap. VI, 1918.

mutual friend to introduce them to a prospect or take them to lunch together. In South American countries this is the approved procedure. There is no doubt that there is a growing tendency in some lines in this country to carry on business in this way.

A salesman upon coming to a large city went to the Builder's Exchange and explained his business to the secretary and obtained from him the names of the members. Then he went to the president and other officers and attempted to sell them. Thereafter when he called upon a contractor he introduced himself and said, "I have just been talking with Mr. Secretary, Mr. President, Mr. Vice-president and Mr. Treasurer. May I have a few minutes of your time?" He had no difficulty securing his interviews. This method of using names will work in almost any line providing the prospect knows the men who are named and particularly when they are in the same business as he is. The prospect can hardly afford to turn down an unknown proposition which his competitors know about.

A letter of introduction, even from the salesman's own sales manager, or an introduction on the back of a card will usually secure an interview. But, of course, this device cannot be used upon any subsequent call.

The salesman of aluminum utensils calls first of all upon some prominent woman or the president of a Ladies' Aid Society of a church and interests her in having a demonstration given to her friends. There he meets all those who attend and later calls upon them in their homes. Similarly, the book agent calls first upon the leading men in town and then secures his further interviews through use of their names.

In calling upon a prospect, knowledge of his name materially increases the chances of meeting him, and knowledge of the names of several of his acquaintances increases the chances still more. Merely asking for the buyer acknowledges lack of knowledge of the company. If the salesman does not know the name of the man he wishes to see, he can often find out his name by telling the clerk he wishes to see Mr. ——— "Oh I can't recall his name. He is the buyer of office furniture." And the clerk will say, "Mr. Black." The salesman replies, "Yes, tell him Mr. Salesman is here."

Use of the Telephone.—Some buyers estimate 75 per cent of their business is done over the phone today. The introduction of a new commodity is usually made in person, but once confidence is established the phone is employed by both buyer and seller in a great many cases. And much of the business now secured by "order takers" could be done just as well over the phone and at a great saving of time.

One corporation has been able to increase the actual time spent by salesmen in contact with prospects from half an hour to two and a half hours, and the number of interviews from four interviews to thirteen. This has been accomplished by putting in a system whereby the salesman must lay out each day's activities through making appointments by telephone or otherwise. This is the established custom in England.

The telephone conversation of a successful salesman runs somewhat like this:

"Mr. Jones, my name is Smith. I am planning to be in your office at exactly 10:15 tomorrow morning, and am wondering if I could see you for five minutes."

"What for?"

"To tell you about a new kind of insurance—to explain a service that has to do with the safeguarding of your records."

At this point Mr. Jones usually asks Smith whom he is with. Smith tells him and then adds:

"The chances are I can tell you something you would be glad to know. We have got onto some new wrinkles in the way of keeping records that I know you want to hear about. Of course so far as buying is concerned, that is a matter we can talk about later or not at all, just as you prefer."

A salesman in an entirely different line, after introducing himself, explains his request for an interview in about these words:

"I would like to drop in and talk over for a few minutes a matter that Mr. Edwards (a friend of the prospect) believes you will be interested in, or at any rate be mighty glad to hear about. Which will be more convenient for you—10:30 or 3 this afternoon?" (Here he tries to force a decision on which time, not on whether he may have the interview or not.)

Handling a Prospect Who Refuses to See the Salesman.—When a prospect sends out word that he is "busy" the salesman

should endeavor to get an appointment at another hour, suggesting two or three specific times. When the salesman will not be back for some time it is proper to be more insistent. He should then suggest another hour that same day; or explain to the subordinate the situation and appeal to him to arrange the interview. If the salesman has a really good talking point, it is better still to send in a note in which he communicates this point to the prospect, thus: "Sugar is going up 20 cents tomorrow morning," or "I wanted to give you first choice on our agency. But I have been instructed to close with you or Jones & Larkin today." When a man says he is "busy" he means nothing more or less than that he wants to continue doing what he is doing rather than to talk to the visitor. If the visitor arouses some want sufficiently the prospect will find time to see him.

Handling a Prospect Who Has a Visitor.—If the proposition is of a personal nature there is no option but to say, "I see you are busy now. As I wished to see you about a personal matter, could I return at three o'clock this afternoon?" This is a hint for the visitor to leave, or for the prospect to go with the salesman into another room, or else to see him later.

If the proposition can be discussed before a stranger the salesman can go ahead. But he is handicapped. The stranger, not being particularly interested, will not pay good attention and at an inopportune moment is likely to raise some issue which may upset the sale talk.

When to Take a Second Salesman with You.—Every salesman has occasionally to face partners, or a father and son, or even a committee of the board of directors. It is bad enough to have one prospect raising objections but it is well-nigh impossible to cope with two or more opponents, who, when they are not talking are concocting trouble. It often pays in such cases for two salesmen to call. When this is done one of the two should be in charge and do the major part of the talking. The second can relieve him from time to time particularly in the matter of handling objections.

As a general rule two men can secure an interview when one would fail. This is particularly the case when one can announce himself as a sales manager. Visits of sales managers are out of the ordinary and suggest an important deal.

STARTING THE INTERVIEW

The usual discussion of this topic starts with the problems of "getting attention" and "securing interest." As has been seen these mental states are mere by-products of a good interview. The real problem is: "What can I say in two or three sentences which will arouse one of Mr. Prospect's wants?" Whenever a man experiences a want he is automatically attentive and interested and desirous of hearing more.

The Introduction.—The most usual introduction is: "Mr. Prospect, I am Mr. Salesman of Smith & Jones Motor Company." Another introduction is: "Mr. Prospect, I am calling on you at the suggestion of our mutual friend, Mr. White. My name is Mr. Salesman." It is often of advantage at this point to hand the prospect a card so that he may get the exact names of the speaker and his company.

The salesman should let the prospect take the initiative about shaking hands. But if he gives an opportunity the salesman should give him a good hearty shake. A manly handshake and a hearty smile help very much in forming a friendship. All find it hard to turn down a man who smiles and makes one smile in return.

Preliminary Remarks.—During the few seconds the salesman is laying his hat and top coat on a chair and is seating himself, if a chair has been indicated, there is opportunity to make a few causal remarks. These should be in a cheerful key and of a sort which the prospect is likely to agree to. The prospect should be allowed to continue the subject if he will, because three or four minutes spent in a social way help each to size up the other and become more at ease.

When a salesman takes a prospect to lunch this social part of the interview is extended well into the middle of the meal. In fact, in many cases the real business to be transacted is not broached until the cigars are lit.

Many salesmen, consciously or unconsciously, do not make an abrupt transition from social conversation to the business at hand, but employ what is called an "*entering wedge*" between the two. If the salesman is selling to the retail trade he may tell about some unusual window display he has recently seen that

might be of interest to the merchant, or he may show him some advertisements of a competitor.

A good entering wedge is some topic that will immediately grip the prospect, that can be discussed for a few minutes at most and then be dropped, and that preferably leads up to the main subject to be presented. For example, a life insurance salesman can say, "I see our old friend Green wasn't as smart a lawyer as he thought. The court has set aside his will, I notice in the morning paper." When this topic has been finished, the salesman can start the real interview by saying, "Have you ever heard, Mr. Prospect, of a will which the heirs could not attack, much less break?"

In a retail store the usual approach is after this fashion: "Can I show you something?" "Anything?" "Been waited on?" A real entering wedge would be, "These are some of the new gowns which we have just received. Aren't they trimmed beautifully?" And as this is said the saleswoman picks up a gown and places it before the customer. As the writer was waiting for a friend the other day in a department store a real salesman called across, "Let me show you something that is worth looking at." He then explained more about sweaters than the writer had imagined was known by anyone. But it was his enthusiasm for his goods that was the best part of the conversation.

The "opening remarks" of the salesman selling a set of reference books for school children (page 36) is an excellent example of an opening wedge. The first idea, "school work more effective" is almost certain to interest the mother who has children in school and to disarm suspicion. Comparison between former school methods and those in vogue today leads most naturally to the proposition to be submitted.

The gasoline pump salesman opens his remarks with an entering wedge when he inquires about the sale of tires displayed in the window (page 40). And the disclosure that sales are not satisfactory leads to a discussion of how to reach the farmers who come to town.

The salesman of one large electrical equipment concern walks into a plant and starts talking to the foreman. As the salesman talks he takes a very small screw driver out of his pocket

and toys with it apparently unconcernedly. When he sees that the foreman is interested in the tool he shows it to him, asking his opinions about its usefulness. Invariably the foreman is taken with it; and when told that he can have it becomes very friendly. The salesman then gets the freedom of the shop and can find out the needs of the company for electrical equipment. He uses this knowledge to obtain an interview with the buyer. Novelties and souvenirs are often used in similar ways as entering wedges.

The First Point to Be Made.—Remember the commodity or service to be sold will be bought by the prospect only as he sees it is a means to some end, only as he sees in it a way to the satisfying of one or more wants. If the prospect feels the want then the commodity can be played up as a solution at the start. But usually the prospect is not warmed up and something should be said very early in the sales talk to arouse the necessary wants.

Garver, of Strasburg, Ohio, does a business of nearly a million dollars in a town of 850 population. People go by train or motor for long distances to trade with him. One of the secrets of his success is that he employs high school boys and girls to visit every farm house in his territory. And they report the condition of the carpets, whether there is a vacuum cleaner, a washing machine, etc. All this is noted on index cards. When a customer comes in to buy a hat or some bolts the clerk looks up his card and then, knowing his carpet is in bad condition, gets him into the carpet department. But if his carpet is new there are no foolish questions as to whether he wants a carpet. Garver's salespeople know what the prospect needs and so they can intelligently interest him in appropriate articles.

When the salesman does not know what the prospect needs or wants he must flounder around. While doing so he must touch on one likely want after another until he sees by the prospect's attitude that he has struck home. Then this point can be enlarged upon. The secret of such an approach is to cover a good deal of ground very rapidly. During this period objections should be brushed aside, because the essential thing is to find the key to the prospect's wants. When the prospect relaxes, or asks serious questions about the matter, the salesman has reached the point where he can present the proposition in a thor-

oughgoing manner. How to do that is the theme of the next chapter.

A reviewer criticized the Bagley-Barnes interview in Chap. III when it was first published because Bagley did not introduce himself as a life insurance salesman and did not start talking about what he had to sell, namely, life insurance. A good many life insurance men feel the same way. And the same view is held by many salesmen in other lines. These people do not realize what the prospect, Barnes, bought. He did not buy a life insurance policy; he bought a guarantee that his boy would go to college. When this point is appreciated one must see that the salesman started right off talking about what the prospect was going to buy.

If a salesman will keep this distinction in mind he will have a very good guide as to what his first point must be.

Examples of Good Approaches.—Here are three examples gleaned from the sales manual of the Burroughs Adding Machine Company.

My company has been investigating why such a large percentage of retailers, according to Dun's and Bradstreet's, are not making money. Their books tell us that fully 90 per cent of all retail businesses eventually prove failures. You have probably wondered yourself why you did not make more money with the volume of business you were doing. We have seen banks make money on one side of the street at 6 per cent, while retailers went broke on the other side of the street making 25 per cent on some goods.

I would like to talk to the gentleman who stays here nights worrying with that trial balance and checking back errors in proving figures. I want to show him how he can go home nights and save all that time lost in checking and doing unnecessary work.

I would like to show your a little mechanical device to set on your counter, which you and each of your clerks could use, which requires no experience to operate, and which will render much better service to your customers, save you a great deal of time, enable you to wait on a great many more people in a day, and which costs so little that the money it will save you will pay for it in a very short time.

Note the number of wants that are touched upon very briefly in this last approach. If any one of them appeals to the prospect he will hesitate and the salesman will secure his opportunity to demonstrate his device. While doing so he will discuss at length each of these points.

HANDLING REBUFFS

Some business men will continue to work at their desk after signifying to the salesman to proceed. The salesman has two options in such a situation. He may say, "I am perfectly willing to wait until you are at leisure," and then sit down, thereby emphasizing his remark. Usually this has the desired effect. Or he may accept the challenge and hurl one statement after another at the prospect, each of which is designed to force him to forget his work.

Occasionally a prospect feels he has not been treated properly by the salesman or his company and so declines to have any further dealings with them. When the prospect's behavior suggests that this is the case the best procedure is to find out what is the trouble. Sometimes this can be ascertained from an employee by tactful questioning. At other times the salesman must find some way to reach the prospect and learn from him what his grievance is. When the cause is known the salesman can frequently find some way of making matters straight. Usually an order cannot be secured at the time. But on the next call, if the salesman has been tactful and also has shown sincere interest, he is likely to be successful. The causes for a grievance are often rather ridiculous. One furniture dealer in Spokane hated a rival, and because his goods were shipped in the same car with his rival's refused to see the representative of the Chicago wholesaler. The fact that he had secured a considerable saving in freight made no difference to him. After a number of calls the salesman finally satisfied him by arranging to ship his goods in a separate car, and then got him to order enough to fill the car so as to save on the freight!

Handling Interruptions during the Interview.—Whenever the interview is interrupted for more than a few seconds the salesman must renew the presentation in much the same way that he started it originally. During the interruption the prospect has been thinking about something else. And the salesman must lead him back to the proposition. While the prospect is attending to the interruption the salesman should plan out some particularly striking point or some good illustration with which he can start off. Then when he has again the undivided attention of his prospect he can return to the main discussion.

One of the hardest types of interruption to deal with is that occasioned by the prospect getting off the subject and talking at length about some experience of his. There is real advantage in letting him talk this way if he does not continue too long. But when he keeps on there is little chance of selling him. One way to stop him is to cease replying to his remarks. A second way is to use "conversation stoppers," as Fred Kelly calls them. For example, a customer says to the sales clerk, while looking at a golf suit:

"I got into an unusual game out at our club yesterday."

That was a signal for the clerk to say:

"Indeed. What was that?"—whereupon the customer would talk for possibly twenty minutes.

But this clerk merely replied with disarming politeness:

"I can't understand what people tell me about golf yet. But I'm crazy to learn the game. I'm taking my first lesson next Saturday."

There in only a second or two he had given the customer the idea that it was no use to tell him anything about a golf game, as he couldn't understand it. And yet he didn't offend the golf enthusiast, because he admitted that he would like to know about it and intended to take lessons. The customer doubtless went away satisfied that the clerk was a good fellow.

A third way to head off a prospect who talks too much is to break in at some opportune moment and say, "That's very interesting. But I really must not take any more of your time. There is just one more point I want to make clear regarding our proposition."

OPENING THE INTERVIEW WITH AN ESTABLISHED CUSTOMER

Once a salesman has become known to a customer and particularly after he has sold the customer several times, nearly all the troubles incident to starting the interview are eliminated. Because of established acquaintanceship or friendship the buyer can hardly refuse to see the salesman, even if he does greet him with the words, "Nothing doing today."

The more thoroughly the salesman understands the needs of his customer the more likely he is to sell even with such a salutation. The following illustrates only one of many methods of ascertaining needs.

Many retail dealers do not have time to "scale-up" their stock and consequently do not know what sizes they need. Quite frequently, too, they haven't time to give personal attention to salesmen, and refer them to a clerk who looks casually over the shelves and states that he does not need anything. If the salesman asks permission to scale the dealer's stock, telling him that he will give an accurate record, he often obtains the privilege. An accurate check will usually show the stock is short. This means an order and more attention from the manager when he glances over the scale sheet.

The "scale-up" has accomplished the following: (1) it has put the salesman in closer contact with the manager; (2) it has secured an order when possibly the salesman might have been informed that "nothing was needed;" (3) it has given real service which the manager appreciates; and (4) it has created confidence in the salesman and his firm in the mind of the dealer.

Questions

1. What is the strategy of the prospect? How may it be successfully overcome?
2. How should a salesman dress?
3. How can a salesman increase his confidence?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a telephone in securing an interview?
5. What general principles should be borne in mind in dealing with subordinates?
6. What is an "entering wedge?" Give three examples.
7. What determines what point to make first?
8. What should a salesman do when his prospect is interrupted?
9. Of what use is an "order taker?"
10. Why does the writer give no space to "getting attention" and "securing interest?" (Refer to page 195.)
11. Spend a day in the office of a purchasing agent and note what salesmen say and do and the responses of the purchasing agent.
12. Outline in detail how you would start the interview with the prospect whose case you analyzed in Question 2 of Chap. XXV.

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CHAPTER XXVII

PRESENTING THE PROPOSITION

To say something which will make the prospect want to hear more is the primary object of the few minutes spent in starting the interview. When this has been done the salesman can proceed to a more systematic presentation of his proposition.

In many interviews it is possible to note a change in the prospect which denotes his willingness to listen further. Often he says at this point, "Well, what's the proposition?" or he ceases from any active opposition to the interview; or he relaxes, leaning back in his chair; or he suggests that the salesman sit down. Such a change may not always be apparent especially in the case of some astute business men and purchasing agents who have learned not to give any particular indication of interest. With the majority, however, relaxation comes when a want is aroused.

When this point has been reached the salesman should present what he has planned to say. His main topics, as has been seen in Chap. XXV, are:

1. What will make the prospect feel his wants?
2. What will make the prospect clearly understand the obstacle to satisfying these wants?
3. What will convince the prospect that the salesman's proposition is an adequate solution—also the best solution, if competitors are mentioned?

How shall these topics be presented in the most effective manner?

THE SALESMAN MUST HAVE THE SAME FEELINGS HE IS ENDEAVORING TO CONVEY TO THE PROSPECTIVE BUYER

Step into a jewelry store and ask to be shown an expensive diamond ring. Note how carefully it is handled by the salesman. Note how every movement denotes an appreciation of value.

If a \$1,000 ring were tossed out on the glass counter as though it were a package of chewing gum, would you believe that it was worth very much? Would you not react far more to the salesman's behavior than to his remarks?

The same situation holds in all selling. The prospective buyer, consciously or unconsciously, reacts to the salesman's gestures, tone of voice, behavior in general; and he judges that what the salesman says is true or not very largely on that basis. He also comes to feel in much the same way that the salesman feels. To a large degree emotions are contagious. If the salesman smiles, it is difficult for the prospect to refrain from smiling—in fact, he is most likely to relax, to smile, to like the salesman. If the salesman is in deadly earnest, the prospect is most apt to become so also. *A man must feel if he would make others feel.*

The science of selling is to know what wants to arouse; the art of selling is to feel those wants personally and to get the prospect to feel them. On the stage and in novels the villain makes a beautiful proposal to the heroine. But everyone knows, just as she does, that he is false because he does not act the part and cannot act the part because he does not feel real love. The hero stumbles around and stammers and thunders. But his meaning is accepted even if he does not actually express his desires in words, because his actions are interpreted. So in selling. The salesman who genuinely feels in the way he desires the prospect to feel will succeed, though he expresses himself in a stumbling manner, whereas he will fail if he does not feel that which he may say most beautifully. Of course the ideal here is both to feel sincerely and to express the feeling adroitly.

The two reasons why a salesman is not likely to have the feelings he should have are: First, he really does not care anything about the prospect—all he wants is his commission. And second, his sale presentation becomes such an old, old story that he loses interest in it.

The salesman must continually force himself if possible to approach each prospect with 100 per cent enthusiasm. He must realize that although he has told his story hundreds of times the prospect has never heard it from him before. He must make sure that the prospect becomes enthusiastic, that he feels certain wants very keenly, that he clearly sees how the

salesman's proposition will render him a service and satisfy his wants.

Many actors, if not all, work themselves up to the appropriate emotional state before coming on the stage. Salesmen can and should do the same. If, for example, a retail salesman is approached in an auto accessory department by a prospect who asks about bumpers, the salesman can deliberately think of some new auto that was all banged up because of the lack of a bumper or can recall an accident where serious injury might have been eliminated by a bumper. Thinking about these incidents will cause him to feel serious concern and his tone of voice and manner will convey concern to the prospect. Such incidents are first-class material for the sales talk. But whether they are uttered or not, if the salesman feels their effect, the prospect will also be influenced.

Review at this point Chaps. XV to XIX as they point out many ways by which the prospect's wants may be aroused. In other words they emphasize the value of "*getting the prospect into the picture*," of "*maintaining a 'you' attitude*," of "*solving a problem for him*."

DEMONSTRATION OF THE SOLUTION

It was pointed out in Chap. XII that the most thoroughly satisfying methods of settling a difficulty is by trying out the solution as soon as it comes to mind and so seeing whether it works or not. Reasons are employed in everyday life only when the solution cannot be immediately tried out or when there is too much at stake. Consequently, reasons for buying should always be viewed as substitutes for an actual tryout, and demonstration should be resorted to whenever possible.

Consider several examples:

Selling the Agency for Magazines.—The salesman is talking here to a retailer who does not sell magazines. After a few introductory remarks the salesman proceeds to demonstrate the profit to be obtained. As he talks he jots down on paper before the prospect the salient facts.

"Let us suppose," he says, "that you start with twenty-five copies of *Cosmopolitan* or *Good Housekeeping* to retail at 25 cents a copy.

Cost of twenty-five copies to retailer @ 19¢.....	\$4.75
Selling price of twenty-five copies to reader @ 25¢.....	6.25
Total profit at the end of the month.....	1.50
But this happens 12 months each year.	
Hence, total profit in 12 months will be $12 \times \$1.50$, or	\$18.00

"Have you any other \$4.75 invested in your business that brings you \$18 profit in a year?

"Let us look at the profitableness of these magazines from the standpoint of the space they take up.

"Suppose you handle twenty-five copies of any of these magazines, say *Cosmopolitan*. That calls for an investment of \$4.75 and brings in a profit of \$18 a year, as we saw above. But this pile of magazines takes up less than one square foot of counter or stand display space.

"Have you any other square foot of space in your store that brings in for you \$18 profit in a year's time?

"The cost of selling International Magazine Company magazines is exceedingly low. If properly displayed they sell themselves. When you add IMC magazines to your lines you add

No extra overhead.

No extra clerk hire.

No extra expenses for supplies, etc.

"Add IMC magazines and you add almost a clear profit of the entire margin you get on selling them.

"IMC magazines are well known. A market is assured. There are customers all ready to buy in your town.

"The beautiful covers on IMC magazines will attract attention to your store. The complete monthly change of covers will keep your store a center of constantly renewed interest. These magazine covers are works of art. Many thousands are sold by the publishers every month for use as pictures for the home. People are interested in them. They want them.

"IMC magazines will attract customers to your store. When they come they will see your other goods displayed and you will sell other goods as well.

"The agency for the IMC group of magazines is a valuable franchise. These magazines are now sold by the first establishments in the country."¹

The calculation of profit is presented in the form that the retailer himself would use. Note the appeals to other wants beside that of the profit of \$18; also the statements calculated to head off objections to handling the magazines.

Selling Aluminum Utensils.—As an example, take these two paragraphs from the *Instructions to Wear-ever Salesmen* with regard to the selling of an omelet pan.

¹ Cosmopolitan Distributing Corporation, *Sales Manual*, chap. IV, 1920.

"By the way, how do you make an omelet, Mrs. Blank?" In reply to her remarks, "Yes, my mother (or some other person) had about the same experience. Now, in using this pan you place an equal amount of the mixture in each side, then place the pan on the stove in this way. Some women prefer doubling the omelet before it is quite done; others like to have brown on the top before doubling, that is simply a matter of taste, but see how nicely and how quickly you can double an omelet." (Here close the pan and open again.) "Now you have the double omelet on this side and by placing the serving dish in this way you can toss the omelet out onto the plate (enthusiastically) thoroughly baked, in perfect shape, steaming hot—most appetizing.

"The omelet pan may be used for baking layer cake also. Open the pan, place the proper amount of batter in each side and set in oven. You may have two half-round cakes which may be iced and placed one on top of the other."

The salesman goes on in this way to show how to fry eggs, to cook hashed brown potatoes, to fry potatoes, to cook apples, to pop corn, etc. His sales presentation is almost entirely restricted to *showing* and *telling* how his goods can be used.

Selling Tool Steel.—One company sends its salesmen to a technical institution where they acquire sufficient skill in the machine shop and in the heat treatment of steel to make tools. The whole sales strategy of the salesman reduces itself to these ends—to get permission to work in the prospect's machine shop, to make a tool there out of his own steel, and finally to demonstrate its superiority in actual use.

Selling an "Intangible."—In the selling of personal service and of many commodities a demonstration is impracticable, if not impossible. This condition is nowhere better illustrated than in the case of life insurance. Here a demonstration of the value of the policy necessitates the death or old age of the prospect—a manifest impossibility. The substitute for the demonstration in such cases is to be found in narration of actual experiences in the lives of others—preferably of those known to the prospect, and in the outlining step by step of just what may happen in the future. Note in the sales talk in Chap. IV how the salesman outlines how he has solved his own problems by buying life insurance. And after securing from the prospect certain details about his private affairs, the salesman shows him how his problems can all be taken care of.

The general tendency today is to require a salesman to memorize one good demonstration presentation. Then he is left

free to use it or not as circumstances permit. It is believed that he will use a good deal of what he has memorized, since the words, phrases, and sentences will come into mind without any effort. And such carefully prepared sentences are thought to be more effective than what the salesman is likely to utter on the spur of the moment.

TWO METHODS RELATIVE TO THE ORDER OF PRESENTING INFORMATION

The statement to be established may be stated first and followed by supporting evidence, or the evidence may be presented first and the concluding statement given last. These two methods have been called, "Forcing favorable classification," and the "Toboggan method."

Conclusion Stated First, Evidence Second.—If the prospect accepts the conclusion as soon as it is stated, all is well. If he disbelieves it, the salesman must marshal his evidence so as to force the prospect to classify the statement with some statement which he does believe. For example, an advertisement of *The American Weekly* in *The New York Times* of Nov. 9, 1922, states in its heading it is "the most *exclusive* publication." The advertisement then proceeds to show that this is so by adding:

1. No other *one* medium reaches 3,500,000 families in America.
2. No other *one* medium reaches 22 per cent of all the people in America that can be reached by the printed English word.
3. No other *one* medium concentrates its circulation in the twelve most populous sections of America.
4. No other *one* medium offers advertisers the opportunity of using a full-size newspaper page in *color* (three colors and black)—in a magazine eagerly read weekly in more than one out of every five homes in the country. Etc.

Stating the conclusion first has the advantage of being the most natural way for the salesman to present his proposition. It also has the advantage of making perfectly *clear* what is to be proved. This method should be employed whenever the primary object is to make a point clear and whenever the prospect will probably believe the conclusion, or at least consider the matter before coming to a conclusion. But whenever the prospect will disbelieve the conclusion and particularly when he wants to disbelieve it, this method is not so good as the "toboggan method."

Evidence Stated First, Conclusion Second.—In the case of the “toboggan method” the conclusion is not stated until the supporting evidence has been presented. A good illustration of this method is the typical resolution drawn up by a society. Each “whereas” presents one reason for the final conclusion. When the reader has had an opportunity to be impressed by all the evidence he comes finally to the action he is asked to support. As he does not know what this action is when reading each “whereas” he has no impulse to object but stays passively in suspense. One of my students dubbed this method of presentation the “toboggan method” for he pictured the reader saying “Yes, Yes, Yes,” to each point as it was made, getting so much momentum in affirmation that when he reached the conclusion he could hardly refrain from another agreement, just as a toboggan having gone faster and faster down the hill can hardly be stopped short as it reaches the bottom.

Suppose a life insurance salesman wishes to sell an income policy in which the wife will receive not a lump sum but a check each month. To state this at the beginning may furnish the prospect an opportunity to focus all his disinclination to buy insurance upon the disadvantages of his wife’s not receiving a lump sum. To prevent this the salesman may start off by saying:

Mr. Prospect, you are familiar with the custom of many a business man of maintaining a personal checking account in one bank and another checking account for his wife in a second bank. And you know that such a man gives his wife a monthly check which she deposits in her bank. If he goes off on a trip, he arranges that this monthly check will go to his wife just the same. Now the proposition I have in mind for you accomplishes exactly what such a man does for his wife in that if you die your wife will get just such a check regularly every month as long as she lives.

If the prospect gives his wife a check each month he naturally agrees with the preliminary remarks and can hardly escape from the conclusion, namely, the desirability of his wife’s receiving a check each month even after he is gone.

Another illustration of this method is given in the letter on page 278. The method of *reductio ad absurdum* used in geometry and sometimes called the “predicament method” in advertising circles is a phase of the toboggan method. Here one says,

"You don't believe my proposition. All right. Let's assume the opposite is true." Then step by step is logically taken, at each step agreement being secured from the opponent, until finally a conclusion is reached which is clearly not true. The opponent is in this way led to see that this point of view is wrong and is forced to consider the original statement. This method of convincing another, first by demolishing his counter point of view, is probably the most effective way through logical presentation of convincing a man who does not want to be convinced.

The chief disadvantages of the toboggan method of convincing another are: First, the salesman himself does not naturally think in this way. He wants to state the proposition and then defend it, not *vice versa*. Second, the prospect is always endeavoring to size up the proposition being submitted to him, and with this method he is held in suspense. Third, in advertising the person who reads only the heading of the advertisement does not get the point. On the other hand, he is more likely to read the advertisement, if the heading is a good one, than when he gets the point at a glance.

The chief advantage, to repeat, of this method, is that it affords opportunity to present the favorable aspects of the proposition before the prospect can say, "I don't believe it," and so lessens the chances of his disbelieving when he hears the conclusion.

OVERCOMING THE PROSPECT'S RESISTANCE

In *The New York Times* of Jan. 20, 1913, appeared this news item:

As the result of a wager, and to test the skepticism of the British public, a man disguised as a peddler appeared in the West End Streets of London on Saturday and offered genuine £5 notes for a penny each.

Although he offered his extraordinary bargains for an hour, flourishing the notes in his hands and crying, "Five-pound notes a penny each," and even permitting people to examine them, the peddler sold only two.

Evidently, there is something in human beings that makes them resist a salesman's entreaties even when a profit of 119,900 per cent can be immediately secured.¹

¹ On the retail basis the per cent of profit is 99.9; not quite so imposing.

Causes of Resistance.—There are three primary causes of resistance. The first one is due to man's instinctive resistance to interference of any sort (see page 156). The salesman always interrupts a prospect. Even when the prospect is doing absolutely nothing, the entrance of the salesman forces the prospect to cease doing nothing. And always when one is caused to shift from one thing to another there is some annoyance felt. *Every* salesman has to meet this resistance in every call, except when the prospect is himself seeking the interview. The amount of annoyance depends upon the prospect, upon how busy he is, and upon his initial reaction to the salesman. A pleasing appearance and manner help the salesman here but they can never offset entirely annoyance caused by interruption.

The second cause of resistance is to be found in man's habits of caution (see page 209). Because of many unpleasant consequences resulting from impulsive action, man learns to go slowly, to scrutinize a proposed action, to look ahead and see what the aftermath will be. There is no need of such caution when an old, familiar act is to be repeated because the consequences have already been experienced and are known. But when the proposed action is new and unfamiliar then caution is aroused. Consequently, it may be concluded that the more unfamiliar elements there are in the salesman's whole presentation the more caution will be aroused and the greater will be the resistance to be overcome. If the salesman, his company, and his product are all new to the prospect there will be many more objections to buying than if all three are familiar.

Here again is another reason why it is so important to express the whole proposition in terms of the prospect's interests, to use language familiar to him, to tell stories about people he knows, to explain points in terms of his experiences. In other words, resistance because of unfamiliarity is overcome by making the proposition perfectly clear, detail by detail.

A third cause of resistance is due to lack of desire for the commodity or service. This is overcome by arousing a want for it, by motivation.

It is perfectly natural for a prospect to resist. It is his defense against being talked into buying what he does not want, or what he does not understand, or what he is not sure will bring him

satisfaction. And furthermore it is his natural reaction to being interrupted. All successful salesmen learn to take this resistance as an incident in their work and discover many ways of meeting it.

Types of Objections.¹—Resistance is shown by a prospect, first of all, in his attempt not to see the salesman or to get rid of him when he does see him; and second, in making antagonistic remarks throughout the sales interview.

Antagonistic remarks are usually classified as either *excuses* or genuine *objections*. Excuses are remarks of an uninterested prospect which are uttered in order to get rid of the salesman. Objections, on the other hand, are expressive of some interest but at the same time set forth a reason for not buying.

Frankly it is not always possible for a salesman to tell whether a remark is a mere excuse or an objection. But many times it is possible to determine which is which. As the two should be handled quite differently it is well worth while to make such determination.

The proper way to handle an excuse is to ignore it or to agree to it as far as possible and then go on with the sales talk. Excuses are like smoke rising from a fire. As it does no good to pour water on the smoke so it does no good to answer the excuses. As soon as one is answered another excuse will be given by the prospect. What must be done is to eliminate the resistance that is causing the excuses. And this can only be done by arousing a want.

A genuine objection, on the other hand, must be answered. If it is ignored it is quite likely to flash again into the prospect's mind as the salesman is attempting to close and prevent the prospect from signing. But it is not always necessary to give a full and complete answer to an objection. Frequently a rather trivial answer is all that is necessary. It is sufficient because the objection was uttered without very much thought, if any, on the part of the prospect. Whenever it appears that the prospect is seriously concerned then the objection must be fully answered.

All such objections are indications of interest. They are not really handicaps to selling, rather the reverse. They afford

¹ The distinction between "objection" and "obstacle" is given on page 289.

the salesman an opportunity to explain a point in detail. They would never arise if the prospect was not interested in some way. Frequently they show that the prospect would like to buy but that he is not convinced he should buy. The salesman's answer should supply him with what he needs to satisfy his caution, and to make him feel he has carefully considered the matter.

There are only two objections that are genuine hindrances to a sale, namely, "no money" and "no need." Very often these expressions are used as mere excuses to get rid of the salesman. Consequently the salesman cannot take these replies as final until he is sure they express actual facts. Even when they are facts their existence does not always prevent a sale. For example, a prospect can tell a book salesman, "I have no need for the book I have a copy." That objection prevents a sale to the prospect of the book for his own use, but he may be induced to buy a copy as a gift for someone else. Or a prospect may say to a real estate agent, "I have no money to buy such a house." Such an answer prevents a cash sale but in many parts of the country it might lead to a sale on the instalment plan. And so the salesman replies, "You can buy this house by paying only \$20 a month more than you are now paying for rent."

Methods of Handling Objections.—There are four generally accepted methods of handling an objection.

1. "*Passing-up*" *Method*.—The salesman here simply ignores the prospect's remark. As already pointed out, this method can be used when the remark is only an excuse but not when it is a valid objection. At the beginning of an interview it is usually advisable not to spend time answering even valid objections. In such cases, the salesman can say, "I'll take that point up in a minute," and then go on with his endeavor to arouse some want.

2. "*Head-on*" *Method*.—Here the salesman emphatically denies the prospect's point and shows him he is wrong. Nine times out of ten this precipitates an argument. That is injurious because sales are obtained through agreement, not argument. But sometimes the salesman has no other alternative than to deny the statement.

Objections which imply the necessity of cutting the price, of altering discount rates, of changing established company policies must be answered by a definite refusal. The salesman can ease

the situation if he refuses with a smile on his face and a courteous explanation.

3. "*Admission-but*" *Method*.—The salesman first agrees with the prospect and then goes on to refute the objection. Thus if a prospect says he cannot afford a bumper for his auto, the salesman may reply, "Yes, a great many people are inclined, at first, to feel that they can't afford this bumper. But when they really appreciate that it may pay for itself before they get home, or that it may make the difference between a very serious accident and a trivial one, they say they can't afford to be without one." In a similar way a prospect who says he does not need a Pyrene on his car can be answered by saying, "That's just the way I felt about the matter, Mr. Prospect, for many months. But after I had seen a truck and then a touring car burn up on the highway and then saw a fine sedan saved by Pyrene, I figured it was worth the money. And I've had to use it, to. Once I put out a fire caused by short-circuit on my own car and once I saved a Ford delivery truck that was all in flames when I came up."

This is the simplest and easiest method to handle objections.

4. "*Boomerang*" *Method*.—In this method the objection is turned into a reason for buying. If the prospect says he cannot afford a delivery truck, the boomerang answer is, "That's just the reason, Mr. Prospect, you need this truck. You can't afford to be without one." And then the salesman continues the presentation showing how it saves money. Or if the salesman is selling office equipment he can reply to the objection, "I can't afford it," by, "You can't afford to be without it if it gives you more time to make money, saves you money in stopping errors, and gives you information about your business which you ought not to be without."

GENERAL RULES RELATING TO HANDLING OBJECTIONS

1. As far as possible ignore excuses; answer trivial objections as quickly as possible; take pains to make the answer to a sincere objection perfectly clear.

2. Never argue.

3. Avoid discussion of competing goods. Consideration of them is apt to lead to argument; and in any case it focuses attention upon them.

4. Anticipate objections that the prospect is likely to raise and answer them in a few words. Once an objection is stated by a prospect it is difficult for him to give it up—no one likes to be beaten in an argument.

After a little experience in selling, a salesman should know fairly well what objections are raised by prospects; also, what objections are likely to be raised at different points in the sales presentation. When a prospect shows he is not agreeing with what is said, but does not say anything, the inference can be made that this or that objection is in his mind. The objection should then be stated and answered. In this way a good salesman learns to read a prospect's mind surprisingly well.

The hardest man to sell, as far as most salesmen are concerned, is the one who will not say a word. Many men have learned not to show interest in order to prevent the salesman from "carrying them off their feet." Others are timid naturally, or do not understand, but are not going to admit it. But whatever the cause, the salesman must continue with his presentation taking care to make each point clear, and to throw himself into the presentation with more enthusiasm than usual. Because such prospects do not talk, it is all the more important that the salesman strive to anticipate all objections. One of the best fortifications against prospects who will not talk is the knowledge that a salesman can talk for an hour, if necessary, without stopping and during that time continue to present the proposition in an interesting manner. To do this requires careful preparation based on real knowledge of the goods and of the prospect's needs.

Prepare Definite Answers to Objections.—After every interview the salesman should recall to mind any objection the prospect raised that he did not handle in good shape, and should work out one or more good answers to it.

A very good practice is to list every objection offered in a notebook, and opposite each to make a few notes as to how to answer it. Working up such notes helps the salesman master this whole phase of selling. An occasional review keeps all the answers in mind. Otherwise, the telling story or well-worded expression is apt to be forgotten.

Just such a list of objections and answers is given in every sales manual in the section on Answers to Objections. Of course such

answers apply particularly to the selling of that company's goods. A salesman can profit from a study of this topic as set forth in several other companies' manuals and particularly from a study of manuals of competing companies, if he can secure copies.

It will pay a salesman to read over such questions and answers again and again, if he does not memorize them. The more familiar they are the more likely the answer will be given when the objection is encountered. In the case of many a salesman a better result may be obtained by his developing his own answers. These he is much more likely to express with the proper feeling and to fit into his sales presentation in an appropriate manner.

THE SALESMAN SHOULD BE PREPARED TO REORGANIZE HIS SALES STRATEGY

A salesman may know his prospect very well and he may have planned his sales presentation so that it is a real solution of what the prospect wants and needs. But because some one essential bit of information has been overlooked, or some item incorrectly interpreted, his whole sales strategy may be actually weak or totally wrong. Because of this a salesman should always be seeking more information about his prospect. And when he discovers something new he must be prepared to utilize it. This may mean immediate change of the whole plan or only of some detail.

Some salesmen are versatile enough to be able to change their whole sales strategy as soon as they see the necessity of doing so. Other salesmen cannot do this. Rather than flounder around helplessly they should frankly say, "Well that alters the whole situation. As I am desirous of solving your problem, I want time to think it over. May I come in tomorrow at ten o'clock and submit a proposition to fit your needs?"

SELLING TO A COMMITTEE

When the decision for a purchase is made by a committee the salesman should always interview one or more members before presenting his proposition formally before the group as a whole. For example, if the City Council is to decide upon the purchase of a new fire engine the salesman should interview the chairman of

the Committee on Public Safety and endeavor to sell him personally. In some cases it is necessary to interview the other members of the committee and even the mayor, or any other real leader on the Council. A committee will nearly always decide as its own leader decides. And if his support can be obtained beforehand he will usually aid the salesman. If it is apparent upon interviewing the leader that he is not favorably inclined and cannot be sold, the salesman has the difficult task of selling the other members personally before the committee meeting and keeping them sold against the opposition of the one they are accustomed to follow.

Occasionally, a purchase is decided on in open meeting of a club or association. The same procedure is even more necessary here. The salesman must present his proposition before the whole assembly, but almost always the decision depends upon what is said by those members who speak immediately after him. Consequently the salesman should make sure that the appropriate leaders of the group are sold beforehand and are primed to make the proper motions. As in all selling, the salesman should be careful that the group understands just what it is to do. Many a proposition is lost or tabled after futile discussion because a clean-cut motion was not presented which could be decided by "Yes" or "No."

Questions

1. Why are confidence and enthusiasm necessary in selling?
2. What is meant by "demonstrating the solution?" Illustrate in the case of selling an auto, a new type of razor, stock in a new corporation, a line of shoes to a merchant.
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of presenting the conclusion first and then evidence; also in reverse order?
4. Write out a sale presentation for Mr. Acre (see page 399) covering the point that an electric generator will lessen the chances of fire, setting forth your general conclusion first and then your evidence. Write out a second presentation in which the evidence is given first, followed by the general conclusion.
5. What is meant by "*reductio ad absurdum*," or "predicament method?"
6. What are the causes of resistance to the salesman by a prospect? How can resistance be best overcome?
7. Illustrate the use of the four methods of handling an objection in the case of the prospect's remark, "I can't afford it now."
8. Write out answers to the following objections to buying suburban real estate: "I want to pay off my debts first," "I am single and don't need it,"

"I can invest my money to better advantage," "My wife wants to live in town."

9. Outline the steps you would take in order to induce a men's luncheon club to take over the responsibility of running a small settlement house.

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CHAPTER XXVIII

CLOSING THE SALE

Closing the sale means getting the prospect's favorable decision and his signature to the order.

Because closing is so intimately connected with securing the order, many overemphasize its importance. Of course, there will be no order without closing, but neither will there be an order without an opening, or a presentation. Many failures in selling are attributed to poor closing when the real weakness was the poor presentation. The truth of the matter is that if there were a perfect presentation to a prospect who needed the goods, he would buy and there would be no need for a close.

In actual selling, a perfect presentation may be aimed at as an ideal; but seldom will it be achieved. In those cases of imperfect presentation it is nearly always necessary for the salesman to force the issue at the close. This is true even when the prospect is 90 to 99 per cent sold. He may have admitted that the goods are something he needs, that the benefits will justify the expenditure of the necessary money; that he has the money; that the details are satisfactory; and so on; but he may hesitate just the same and insist on putting the matter off. It is in such cases that the art of closing plays an important rôle, for thereby a great deal of time and effort is saved both to the prospect and salesman.

If the prospect does not want the goods no closing procedure will secure the order. It is only when there is *implied consent* that closing can be resorted to. A prospect is then in a position analogous to that of an auto headed down a gentle slope. If the brakes are released the car does not move, but a slight jar will start it, and once started it rolls on down the hill. The prospect in such a position has released the brakes of caution, he has accepted the solution as satisfactory but he does not start because of inertia, because he has been standing still deliberating all this

time. The coveted signature is obtained after the prospect has been jogged.

PRELIMINARY TACTICS

Concentrate on Getting the Order from the Very Start.—Because closing is always discussed as a separate part of selling, many develop the idea that it is actually a separate stage and that nothing should be done toward closing until the time has come to close. This is a very erroneous view. Closing is the culmination of the entire presentation, and everything in the presentation should lead to it.

Secure Agreement, Step by Step.—When a point has been made the salesman may ask, "Isn't that so, Mr. Prospect?" or "You agree with me, don't you?" or "You know that is true?" In this way the prospect is led to make a number of minor decisions. This is very helpful, for once the prospect has openly admitted a point he is not likely to go back on it later. It is also helpful in that the salesman can discover in this way whether the prospect is coming along or not; and if he does not openly agree at a certain point the salesman can spend more time in making the point clear. But the chief value of securing agreement step by step is that it helps materially to ease the prospect out of his attitude of resistance to the salesman. And it is this resisting attitude that makes it so hard for the prospect to give in finally and openly say, "All right."

Review the sales interview between Bagely and Barnes (Chap. III) and note how the prospect was led to agree to one point after another. "Yes, he had a son." "The son was going to college." "He believed in a college education." "A college education increased one's ability to earn a living." "There was nothing he would rather have for his boy than a college education," etc.

Have, at Least, One Good Laugh.—There is nothing that makes people like each other so much as a good laugh together. It breaks down the barriers between strangers; it develops a common bond of interest; it breaks up the resisting attitude of the prospect.

Get All Troublesome Details Out of the Way before Attempting to Close.—A stock salesman was required by the California law to show a certain legal document and to secure the prospect's

signature to it indicating he had read it. Again and again a sale was lost because the prospect cooled down while reading the long document. Introducing this document into the early part of the sales presentation as proof that the sale of this stock had been passed upon by the state authorities eliminated this difficulty, and also strengthened the prospect's confidence in the whole matter.

Get All Secondary Decisions Out of the Way before Attempting to Close.—A man and his wife were considering buying a home. They had specified four bedrooms. The real estate agent showed them a fine place and then attempted to close. The wife showed no interest and finally was led to state her objection, namely, "There are only three bedrooms." Then the salesman showed how a fourth room could be added at a relatively low figure. But he failed to secure the sale. He should have secured agreement on the possibility of adding a fourth bedroom and then attempted to close.

The same stock salesman, referred to above, encountered very great resistance from a group of professional men who had formed a habit of buying only bonds. Finally, he took up and considered as part of his presentation the pros and cons of buying stock in general and when he had secured agreement as to the value of stock he then proceeded with his old sales talk. In this way he eliminated the necessity of securing agreement at the close on the two issues—"Shall I buy stocks instead of bonds?" and "Shall I buy this man's stocks?"

HOW AND WHEN TO MAKE THE PRICE EASY TO HEAR

The cost of the goods must be made clear before the close is attempted. But when the price is a determining factor it should be held back until the proposition has been explained.

Frequently, the prospect attempts to force the issue, to decide before he knows sufficiently about the proposition. He is quite likely in such cases to ask how much it will cost. Such a question always indicates some interest. But frequently the sale will be lost if the price is announced before the value of the goods is clear to the prospect. If the salesman feels that this is the case he can say: "I was just coming to that"; or "I was just about to mention the price and will explain it in a moment";

or "There is just one more point I want to bring to your attention and then you will be better able to understand and appreciate the whole proposition"; or "We can let you have those goods so that you will be able to make 35 per cent."

Soften the Shock of a High Price.—A printing salesman replies to the question, "How much is this going to set me back?" by "We can get these 5,000 booklets out for you in the very attractive way you desire at 14 cents a piece." Somehow such an announcement is not such a shock as the curt statement, "\$700."

A tailor on being asked how much a suit would cost replied: "If this suit gives you as much satisfaction as similar suits have given Mr. Brown and Mr. Hener then the price of \$90 will be secondary. If it won't give you that amount of satisfaction then you ought not to take it. That's fair, isn't it?" The tailor then went out to explain how and why his suits would render such good service.

Many salesmen state the cost in terms of so much a month, or week, or day, instead of the lump sum. Others calculate the contemplated saving to the customer for ten, fifteen, or twenty years and then express the cost divided by such a number of years, thus—"This will save you \$130 a year or \$2,600 in twenty years and the yearly cost to you is only \$25. The prospect will calculate quickly enough that he must pay out \$500. But while doing so his mind is full of the thought of saving the \$2,600."

WHEN TO CLOSE

A story often told by C. J. Rockwell in this connection illustrates how "overselling" can be prevented and also how a salesman can tell when to close.

Perhaps, as a boy, you have waited hungrily around the kitchen stove until the cakes were baked on a Saturday morning. You may remember seeing your mother draw the pans carefully from the oven to see if the cakes were ready to take out. She stuck a straw in first the one, then the other. If the straw came out dry, the cakes were taken from the oven and your chances of getting a piece in the near future were pretty fair. But if the straw was sticky, the cakes were shoved back into the oven and your wait was somewhat prolonged.

A *tryout close* is just that kind of test. If your "feeler" comes out with "half-baked" doubts or objections sticking to it, the

prospect is not "ready to be taken out" Put him back in the oven of the sales talk where the heat of further explanation and motivation can work on him a little longer.

The bug-a-boo of a "psychological moment" is discussed in Chap. XIII. The salesman should forget the notion that there is just one moment when the interview may be successfully terminated and substitute for it the concept of a "tryout close."

TACTICS OF CLOSING

The four factors unfavorable to action are:

1. Competing wants, forcing a decision.
2. Competing solutions, forcing a decision.
3. Unfamiliarity of the solution, arousing caution and consideration of consequences.

4. Effort necessary to act, forcing decision as to when to act.

How to keep competing wants and solutions out of mind and how to eliminate caution were considered in Chap. XIII. The same general problem of securing action may now be considered, but from the positive rather than the negative side.

When the solution has been made perfectly clear and all secondary decisions have been taken care of, the salesman closes by summarizing his motivation and making the decision as easy as possible. If there are still some objections which cannot be eliminated, *i.e.*, if the solution does not appear perfectly adequate, the salesman must in addition take these into account and attempt to minimize them as much as possible.

Summarize the Motivation.—The stronger the want the more certain is the purchase. Consequently, at the beginning of the close the salesman should make certain that the prospect again really feels the wants that lead to desire for the goods, also that he feels the satisfaction to be obtained by possessing the goods. This means that the salesman must create a feeling of enthusiasm for the goods.

Ordinarily a close should be attempted at this point. If it does not succeed then the salesman should take away all the anticipated pleasure, for example, of owning the new car or of pocketing the profit from the resale of the goods. He should

then picture the prospect driving his old car or not securing the prestige of the new line. The aim here is to play up in as sharp contrast as possible the satisfaction to be obtained from the purchase and the dissatisfaction of the present condition. Finally the salesman should refer to the advantages to be secured by the purchase and ask for the prospect's decision.

Hawkins¹ has apparently the foregoing in mind, but it appears to the writer that he puts the emphasis in the wrong place. He states that many salesmen fail because they continue to present at the close only those ideas that are favorable to buying and do not present "ideas against making the purchase." The contrast which is desirable at the moment of closing is not, however, between ideas for, and ideas against, the goods, but between the satisfying of one's wants and the leaving them unsatisfied. The contrasting of feelings should be emphasized, not the contrasting of ideas.

Weigh the Pros and Cons.—If the prospect still holds to one or more objections to buying despite efforts to eliminate them, it is frequently best to take the troublesome objections into account in closing. It is best because if this is not done openly, the prospect is most likely to stress them all the more, feeling that the salesman is trying to dodge these important points.

Thus, if the salesman is attempting to sell a house which does not face in the direction the prospect desires, he can call attention to several points which are favorable, then admit the undesirable feature, and finally add still other favorable features. Frequently such a weighing of the pros and cons can be introduced by saying, "You have lived long enough to realize that it is seldom that anyone can get just exactly what he wants. Really one is most fortunate if he can get something that pleases him in ten ways and displeases in only one or two ways. Now this house does not suit you in the one particular of facing the wrong way but it does suit you in having two bathrooms, three bedrooms, a separate room for the maid, etc. I know of no house that is available which has all the features you desire." The salesman should continue talking for a few minutes to let the prospect think this over and then should summarize the pleasure of living in this new home instead of in his old place.

¹ HAWKINS, N., "The Selling Process," chap. XI, 1918.

A favorite device of some salesmen is to summarize all the objections a prospect may have as just one objection instead of five or six separate objections. Then this one objection is put over against a number of favorable points. In this way the pros are made to appear more numerous than the cons.

It is extremely important whenever this method of weighing the pros and cons is employed that the salesman shall impress the prospect with his perfect fairness. An unfavorable point should be well stated, overstated always rather than understated; whereas the favorable points should be understated rather than overstated. Seemingly this is just what should not be done. It must be realized, however, that the process of weighing is in order to convince the prospect that he has carefully considered all the unfavorable as well as the favorable aspects of the matter, and that the favorable aspects outweigh the unfavorable ones. The real close is then made in terms of motivation.

Present Alternatives, Each of Which is Favorable to You.— In this type of close the salesman asks the prospect to decide between two things either of which presupposes that he will buy. Thus the book agent asks which binding is preferred, or the adding machine salesman asks whether an electric drive is desired or not, and so on.

One life insurance salesman uses this method very effectively after he has been turned down. After starting to go he stops and scribbles on a piece of paper, "Mr. Salesman is not to blame for my not carrying life insurance." Then he says, "Years ago I failed to insure my best friend and his widow lost \$10,000. I don't want your case on my conscience. Will you please sign this statement?" A considerable percentage of prospects will take the insurance rather than sign the paper. A good deal of the success of this close is due to the very apparent earnestness of the salesman who has suffered greatly because of this neglect of his boyhood chum.

This method has sometimes been expressed as "making it easier for the prospect to go ahead than not." All this is accomplished by forcing the prospect to choose between buying and neglecting to do what he believes he should do.

In some cases the salesman presents two alternatives and then urges the one he knows the prospect does not want. Finally he

agrees that the prospect is right in his contentions and proceeds to fill out the order blank on the assumption that of course the other is to be bought.

The experienced retail salesman often uses this method to force a decision. He shows, for example, one suit after another and quickly learns what is not wanted and what is wanted. After removing from sight all but the suit he judges the customer most desires and another that is not wanted, he attempts to sell the latter. The prospect quickly decides he does not want it. Having thus eliminated seemingly all but one he agrees to take it.

Another phase of this method is that employed by many salesmen where they attempt to close on a model which is priced higher than they think the prospect will buy. By comparison the next model seems cheaper.

Give Him a "Push."—From the beginning of the interview the prospect has been on his guard, has been holding himself in check and so it is hard for him to let go, to sign, or to do anything which suggests giving in. It is necessary for the salesman in many cases to start some action.

A sales manager and his assistant called upon a business man relative to an important deal. They had been told that the man felt aggrieved over a supposed affront and so were not surprised to find him very antagonistic. His unfriendliness was shown by his not uttering a word even of salutation. He sat and listened. Finally the sales manager stopped talking for lack of further ideas. After a painful pause and in desperation he pulled out some cigars and said, "Let's have a smoke while we consider this matter further." Finding he did not have a match he appealed to his prospect for one. The latter had none either although there were ash trays on his desk, and he had to go into the next room. When he returned he picked up the cigar which he had up to that time ignored and after lighting it started talking. The request for a match was the "push" that caused the sale, for unless the prospect had been stirred out of his state of immobility he would not have said a word.

Sometimes the desired action can be secured merely by saying, "You want this, don't you?" and then by requesting him to sign his name. At other times it seems more appropriate to *suggest the action* than to *command it*. In such cases the salesman can

take out the order blank, fill out part of it, and then hand the pen and blank to the prospect, merely pointing to the place for him to sign.

One salesman carries an extra pen that is always dry. When he starts to fill out the blank he "discovers" his pen is dry and so requests the loan of the prospect's pen. His theory is that the prospect will sign with his own pen more readily than with a stranger's. Innumerable stories similar to these are told of how to get the prospect to sign. The value of such stunts lies in the fact that they precipitate action. But unless the prospect is already really sold, such devices are worthless.

ACTUAL CLOSINGS

Nearly all sales manuals devote a number of pages to closing remarks. A new salesman, particularly, can obtain a good deal of benefit from studying such closings and will find it of value to memorize several of them. What has been memorized is apt to be said when needed, and a carefully prepared close is usually better than one uttered without thought of the words to be used.

Closing Talk on a "Set" of Aluminum Utensils.—From experience it has been found that women will buy more if they are sold a set than if they are allowed to select the utensils they want. And there are women who will buy a set who will not buy one utensil. Possibly such women have strongly developed habits of economizing on small things but not with regard to \$20 to \$50 purchases.

During the presentation various utensils have been shown and the salesman has obtained a fairly good idea of what aluminum utensils the woman already has. At the beginning of the close the salesman brings together all the utensils the woman does not have (not counting enamel utensils). As he calls attention to each in turn he notes if she has any decided opposition to it and if so lays it aside.

Then the salesman calls attention to how the pans work together in a set. "The pudding pan can be put in a steamer dish for steaming a pudding or fruit cake. The dish can be put down into the fry pan as a basket for frying potato chips and doughnuts," etc.

The whole set is then summarized. "The outfit will supply your needs in every way, Mrs. Smith. It provides an excellent set of pots and pans.

Here is an 8-quart kettle and a 4-quart pan," etc. "They give you just the variety in size and shape that you need, and every one will be necessary in cooking a large dinner

"The set also provides a complete baking outfit. The cover of the roaster is good for baking jelly cake and can be used with the cookie pan for cookies." (All the remaining baking dishes are similarly discussed.)

"You have a complete baking outfit and in addition a frying set consisting of two fry pans and a griddle, etc. Every piece in the set is planned to save you time and labor. Every piece is built to last."

At this point the salesman picks up an old aluminum pan and says, "These utensils are of the same material and same thickness as this pan, a pan that has been used 10 years and has not worn halfway through. Do you think this utensil will wear for 20 years, Mrs. Smith?"

"Yesterday I called on Mrs. Allbright who is completing her set. I asked her how much she formerly spent each year for enamelware and her estimate was between \$2 and \$3. An enamel preserving kettle and some pans one year, a teakettle and pie pans the next, an enamel roaster and pot-roast kettle the next, and a double boiler and some more pans the next year—even if her enamel lasted four years she could spend from \$2 to \$3; but some of her kettles did not last 6 months.

"Two dollars worth of enamel a year for 20 years equals \$40 worth of enamel." The salesman writes these figures on a piece of paper.

"Do you burn food once a month, Mrs. Smith?" (If she seldom burns food this item is omitted.)

"If you burn up one panful, worth 20 cents each month, this totals \$2.40 a year and \$48 in 20 years. Mrs. Brown has not lost any food from burning since she began using our goods.

(Salesman writes down $\$2.40 \times 20 = \$48$.)

"Mrs. Johnson agreed that Triplicate Sauce Pans would save 2 hours of fuel-burning a day, or \$7.30 worth of gas in a year. Watch these figures: $\$7.30 \times 20 = \$146$."

"Mrs. Smith, is there anything wrong with these figures? (If she thinks that the figures are too large cut them down.)

"Now we will add the column.

"Total saving in 20 years, \$234.

"I have said nothing about the fuel saved by cooking two foods over one burner in the double fry pan, three things in the handy kettle steamer, two things in the teakettle and inset, and the fuel saved by all utensils because they will cook with a low flame.

"Mrs. Smith, you spend in 20 years \$234 for enamel utensils, burned food, and wasted fuel. Now the cost of this complete set of utensils without the fry pan (pushes it to one side) is only \$—, making a net saving in twenty years of \$—. This saving represents actual cash that you can put into other things in your home, things you may now feel that you cannot afford.

"I have kept out the fry pan which is one of the most popular utensils. Nearly all the women want it because it is so clean and is made of such thick metal. Owing to the extra amount of aluminum in it the price of the

fry pan is \$——. This utensil is so popular that we selected it as a premium, and the company allows me to give it to you free with this set."

The salesman next gives the names of customers who have bought more than the set in question.

The salesman then asks test questions to see if she is ready to order. Questions like: "Now the steamer kettle comes in a large size as I said. What size are the preserving kettles that you ordinarily use?" and "This coffee pot is large enough, isn't it?"

If the prospect is not ready to order, a reserve talk is given along the same lines but aimed to make the price seem small. Attention is called to what her farmer husband will pay for a binder for his use; or to what a complete outfit would cost in contrast to what she is buying. If unable to close, a second reserve talk is given telling of experiences of still other women. If still unable to close the salesman eliminates several of the utensils that the prospect is least interested in and tries to close for the smaller set.

The tactics here are to keep talking as long as the customer is undecided. And the salesman is instructed to judge in terms of the woman's actions and not in terms of what she says. Often a woman says "No" when she wants the utensils very much.

Closing Talk in Selling Soap to a Retail Grocer.—Two typical closes are reported on pages 41 to 46. They well illustrate the points already mentioned.

Closing Talk in Selling Books in House-to-house Canvass (see page 37).—Comparison of the items in this close with those given above in the case of aluminum ware will show that practically identical devices are used in both but that they are expressed of course, in quite different language.

PROCEDURE WHEN FIRST ATTEMPT TO CLOSE HAS FAILED

Many salesmen use "reserve talks" in case they fail to close the first time. These are often very effective. They should contain, of course, new illustrations and the arguments should be worded in a different way from what has been said before.

Whether a reserve talk is employed or not the salesman should try to find out why the prospect will not buy. The chances are that if the causes are known the salesman can handle the matter satisfactorily. Consequently whatever is said should be

aimed at overcoming the probable causes of indecision and procrastination.

Sometimes the salesman can ask at this point one question after another, each designed to analyze the cause of the prospect's unwillingness to buy. It is best to frame these questions so as to secure affirmative answers, thus: "You've got to sell laundry soap, haven't you? And the last I sold you is all gone, isn't it? You've got customers, then, who buy our brand, haven't you?"

"Why Won't You Buy?"—Sometimes it is good tactics to ask the prospect why he will not buy. Frequently his answer reveals an objection that can be easily handled. One effective way of handling such an objection, once it is stated, is to say, "As I understand it, Mr. Prospect, this is the only reason that prevents us from getting together on this proposition, isn't it?" When the objection is eliminated the prospect feels the force of this admission; for if he again refuses he realizes he will appear as a quitter, as one who does not abide by his word.

Compromises.—Compromises ordinarily should not be offered until after one or two attempts to close have failed. Compromises are of many sorts. They may involve the giving of a premium, or of a special discount because of some slight change in the proposal, or of an actual cut in the price (a practice still followed in some lines), or of giving terms instead of a cash payment, or of switching from one model to a less expensive one.

Many compromises are effective because they give the impression that something is being gotten for nothing. They make it possible for the prospect to feel that he has won in one particular and so makes it easier for him to let the salesman win as far as getting the order is concerned.

Getting a Decision Now.—One of the most common excuses offered by prospects is, "I won't buy now," or "I must talk it over with my partner or wife," or "I won't do anything today." Often these remarks indicate lack of interest but at times they are uttered by one who is really sold but just cannot admit it or act immediately.

The hardest part of a sale is to close the deal right now. Almost every prospect will agree to buy some time, but a great many hesitate and want to think the matter over before doing it now. All such must be impressed with the fact that right now

all the details are fresh in their mind, that the salesman is there to explain any detail that is not clear, and that it is a saving of time to decide rather than to go over the proposition at some later time.

The salesman should develop as many reasons as possible which emphasize the value of buying and keep them in reserve for this, the last struggle in so many sales. The real estate agent, for example, always reminds you at this stage that another party is considering the property and will probably decide in a day or two as soon as a wife or a husband returns. Many house-to-house canvasses play up the fact that the article cannot be bought anywhere else and that it may be a year before there is another chance. The filing cabinet man and many another call attention to the fact that the commodity is really needed right now and that annoyance at least, if not actual financial loss, will be increased through procrastination. Even newsboys tell you that they have only one paper left.

Questions like the following are often helpful in forcing an immediate decision: "When do you want to use this car?" "When does your lease expire?" "When do you take off your trial balance? I will try to get this machine for you in time to use on that work."

"Call-back."—When a salesman returns to renew his sales interview he should never ask for a decision, even when one has been promised. During his absence the prospect has had a chance to cool down on the proposition and to think of new objections. The salesman should open the interview with some interesting remark and then refresh the prospect with reasons why he should buy. In other words, the prospect should be made to feel the wants which are to be satisfied by the purchase. This presentation should be expressed differently from the earlier talk and should be relatively short.

One of the most unpleasant situations a salesman has to meet is that where a prospect has changed his mind. This ordinarily happens because the prospect comes to believe, after further consideration, he does not need the goods. The salesman may have made him want the goods during the interview but he did not impress him with sufficient reasons why the goods would be of value. Because of the lack of these reasons the prospect

could not later on explain his decision to himself, to his partner, to his wife, or some acquaintance. When the salesman calls back he should ascertain the objections which are now in the prospect's mind. These must be overcome. In addition the salesman must establish a clear conception of just why the goods are of real value. Because the prospect has gone back on his word he will ordinarily be particularly anxious to please the salesman and so will usually give him an opportunity to present his case.

Sometimes the prospect changes his mind because he feels the salesman has tricked him into buying. In such cases his attitude is very hostile, instead of conciliatory. Such a situation calls for entirely different sales tactics from that outlined above. In this case the salesman must sell himself, must show he is sincere, honest, and truly desirous of rendering real service.

On analyzing the procedure of salesmen who report an unusual number of prospects who change their mind it is clear that in many cases they do not leave a clear idea in the mind of the prospect of why he bought. Several have improved their practice by saying to the prospect after the order is signed and they have picked up their hat to go, "Remember, you have bought because"—and then stating in one, two, three order, very briefly, the chief reasons for buying. The prospect may or may not have bought because of these reasons. But they are very apt to be remembered by him and used in defending his action later on.

"Never Say Die."—A salesman should always strive to close the deal and not give up until it is clear the prospect will not buy. "Never say die" does not mean, however, that the salesman should stay with a prospect until one or the other "passes out." When a prospect has said, "No," and it is clear he really means it, then the time to go has come. This "No" does not signify that the prospect will not say "Yes" to the same salesman selling the same article at another time.

It must be recognized that in a great many lines, the prospect does not ordinarily buy until he has become well acquainted with the salesman, his company, its line of goods, and until he is in the market for the goods. It is not uncommon for a new salesman to call every month for a year before receiving any attention and then to be given a chance to bid on some small order. A tire dealer related the other day how a salesman dropped in his

place almost every day on his way home and asked if there was an order for him. "He did it in such a companionable sort of way that I never got tired of seeing him. In fact, after a time, I rather looked forward to his coming in. And finally one day I decided to give him an order. So the next evening when he came in I called out, 'Get your order book. Here goes for a \$1,000 order.'"

Granting everything that is said today about the value of good salesmanship yet it must be admitted that the majority of sales result from friendship. The prospect is converted from a stranger into a friend, and then because of the friendship he gives the salesman business he will not give to another, although a better salesman. He continues to do so as long as the quality of the goods, the price, and the service are approximately equal to what is obtainable elsewhere.

THE WRITTEN PROPOSITION

In some lines of selling the written proposition plays a very important part. The building contractor submits a bid and the prospect buys from him or not, very largely on the basis of what is in the bid. In many lines a written proposal is necessary because the prospect whom the salesman sees must consult with others in his business and the salesman can, through the written statement, make certain these "higher-ups" will obtain the information they need. The written proposal is of value also when the service to be rendered is rather complicated, as in the installation of bookkeeping machinery necessitating changes in the prospect's bookkeeping system. The written program affords the prospect an opportunity to study the details and to make sure they are satisfactory.

The salesman should deliver the written proposal in person and review it with the prospect in his office to make sure he understands it. It should always be appreciated that the written proposal is not the sales presentation. It may be an important part of the presentation but it can never take the place of the salesman's personal presentation. The wants to be satisfied must be aroused orally even if the solution can be written out.

One of the greatest difficulties with a written proposal is that it fosters procrastination. The salesmen in one life insur-

ance agency tried out this method in a thoroughgoing manner. They found that most prospects insisted on showing the proposal to someone else and several used it to get bids from other companies. Finally they hit upon the scheme of jotting down in pencil the salient features as they went along, writing on the back of a letter taken from their own pocket. Obviously the prospect could not ask to keep the paper. This change in procedure decreased the per cent of "call backs" very materially.

Written proposals are used quite extensively in selling service. It is a mistake in most cases to outline details because once a consultant has started work he may find the situation such as to force radical changes in his plans. Consequently his proposal should state only the general program with the understanding that details will be decided upon from time to time as occasion demands.

A written proposal should be gotten up in a neat and attractive manner. In the absence of the salesman, the prospect and his associates estimate unwittingly the personal and moral characteristics of the salesman by what he has prepared.

"FOLLOWING THROUGH"

The objective of all selling is to make a customer, not secure a single sale. Regardless of whether the salesman has secured an order or not, regardless of whether he has succeeded in presenting his proposition or not, regardless of whether he has been treated courteously or abominably, it is his duty to leave as pleasant an impression as possible. This applies to the impression made on the prospect and all of his subordinates. Employees are on the inside, it must be remembered, and often influence the big man decidedly.

One way to make a good impression is for the salesman to show that he values his own time and that of the prospect. Accordingly when the order is secured he should get up and go. He should not stand around and tell stories or swap experiences. Many a sale has been lost in this way.

Another way to make a good impression is for the salesman to show appreciation of the order. It is not that he has received a favor. Rather he has done the prospect a service and helped him

in his business. A genuine man-to-man "Thank you!" with a hearty hand shake and a real smile are all that is necessary. If the salesman has not received an order he can show real friendliness and with a smile say something to suggest that at another time the prospect will want to buy.

Practices differ greatly among sales organizations as to the duties of salesmen relative to following up the order and seeing whether complete service has been rendered. Even if the sales organization has delegated to others these responsibilities, it is of value to the salesman to keep track of what is going on and to "jump in" when necessary and straighten out any mistake or misunderstanding. The success of many salesmen is due very largely to the fact that they actually provide the service that is promised.

More and more the emphasis is being put upon actually serving the customer, upon permanent satisfaction. This means that the salesman must come to understand his customer's business. Much of the responsibility for this must rest upon the sales manager who is in a position to make thoroughgoing studies and to instruct his salesmen. But the salesman, selling to dealers, for example, who studies their difficulties and devises methods of helping them is the salesman who is actually serving them and is the one who most naturally gets their business.

Questions

1. What is meant by "implied consent?"
2. Why is it valuable to secure agreement step by step? How successful was Judson in doing this? (See sales interview, Chap. IV.)
3. What is meant by a "tryout close?" How does emphasizing it differ from emphasizing the "psychological moment?"
4. In closing, should the salesman summarize reasons for buying or motivation? Explain.
5. Describe the weighing process. When should it be used?
6. What kind of alternatives should be used in closing? Give three pairs of alternatives that could be used advantageously in selling a particular commodity.
7. What is meant by "giving a push?" When is such a device to be used?
8. Write out what you would say in closing the sale of a particular commodity or service.
9. List the compromises that can be used in selling a particular commodity or service.

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